UNDERSTANDING ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION IN CHILE: A CULTURAL HISTORICAL ACTIVITY THEORY (CHAT) PERSPECTIVE

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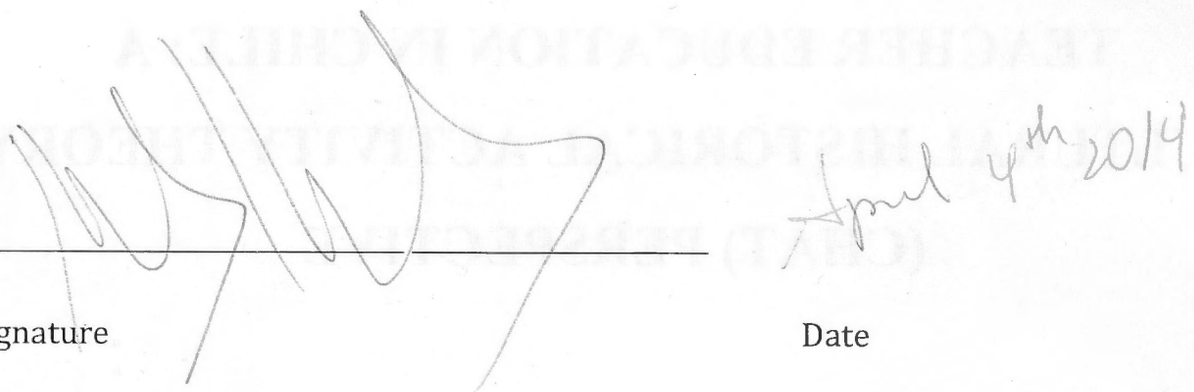
Declaration

I certify that this thesis is my own work and that all sources used have been acknowledged.



Signature Date

Dedication

To my mother, María Cristina Durán Orellana, for inspiring me to work hard in life.

Muchas gracias por enseñarme el valor de trabajar duro en la vida.

Abstract

Over the last two decades, Chile has been driven by an economic imperative to build the capability of citizens to be competent in the English language, resulting in a demand for teachers of English (Matear, 2008). However, there has been a widely held belief that Chilean teachers of English are inadequately skilled and incapable of effectively teaching English at schools (Ministerio de Educación, 2009a). This has resulted in an increasing number of studies in teacher education, however, there is still little evidence based research available regarding how teachers learn to teach English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and what the most effective conditions for this learning are (Díaz & Bastías, 2012).

This thesis explores EFL teacher education in Chile in order to understand the nature of teacher learning in this specific context. The research uses a qualitative research approach to examine the varying motives, actions and mediating tools that shaped how a cohort of 24 final stage pre-service teachers learnt to teach EFL in Chile. The research question addressed in this thesis was: how do final stage pre-service teachers learn to teach EFL in a Chilean teacher education program? The study was framed by a cultural historical activity theory (CHAT) perspective. CHAT's explanatory potential proved useful in understanding pre-service teachers' engagement in the activity of learning to teach EFL, and the interrelated factors that shaped this learning. CHAT also revealed the differing planes and dimensions that impacted pre-service teachers' beliefs, their academic learning and initial teaching experiences.

The major contribution of this thesis lies in its illumination of how a group of pre-service teachers learnt to teach EFL in a Chilean teacher education program. The analysis suggested that pre-service teachers' participation in schools and university coursework settings mediated their ways of thinking, learning, and acting like teachers of English. Pre-service teachers' individual perceptions about learning to teach EFL were examined against the social, cultural and historical context of the activity of learning to teach EFL in Chile. This revealed tensions emerging around differing learning motives, approaches to teaching English, and tools in their negotiation between schools and university environments. The findings of the study support the argument that well designed teacher education which is effectively integrated with practicum experience has an expansive learning potential. This means that pre-service teachers learn to teach EFL as a result of a dialectical relationship of a confluence of factors: their personal experiences as learners, the program's curriculum and pedagogy, teaching

experiences and personal commitment. This elucidation can contribute to teacher education policy in Chile and future curriculum design in SLTE.

The second contribution of this thesis lies in its methodological strand. CHAT as an analytical framework proved to be helpful in making visible specific factors that afforded and constrained pre-service teachers' learning. It shed light on the dialectic nature of EFL teacher learning and its contradictory dynamics between national educational policies, teacher education programs, between theory and practice, and between pre-service teachers' views and classroom reality.

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Publications and presentations by the candidate relevant to the thesis

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Barahona, M. (2014). *Pre-service teachers' beliefs in the activity of learning to teach English in the Chilean context*. Cultural-Historical Psychology. Moscow, Russia.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

This introductory chapter describes the contextual background of the research study and discusses the nature of teacher learning specifically highlighting English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teacher education in Chile. It also presents the aims and research questions that orientated the study. The chapter concludes with an overview of the structure of the thesis.

1.1 Research background

Second language teacher education (SLTE[1]) has had significant attention internationally in the last two decades (Cândido de Lima, 2001; Hüttner, 2012). This interest has emerged as a consequence of the English language becoming an international tool of communication along with the relentless forces of globalisation. The field of SLTE research has variously debated teachers' beliefs, identity, language proficiency, knowledge base and the instructional practices of teacher education programs. This international discussion has also influenced deliberations in Latin America.

In the last two decades, Latin America has been driven by an economic imperative to build up the capability of their citizens to be competent in the English language (Matear, 2008). This has resulted in making English a compulsory foreign language-subject at schools. As a consequence, the field of EFL teacher education has emerged. Currently EFL teacher education is under scrutiny in Latin America through reforms, new policies, standardised tests and a social pressure for better results at higher levels of English (Abrahams & Farías, 2009).

Chile as a new member of the OECD countries has had similar debates to the international discussion on English as a tool of communication in the globalised world. The need to

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[1] Although this thesis is about EFL teacher education, the term SLTE is being used as it has dominated the current literature as an umbrella term to refer to TESOL, ELT and EFL teaching contexts (Wright, 2010). This means that when I use SLTE, I actually refer to EFL teacher education, especially in the Chilean context.

improve the teaching and learning of English, and EFL teacher education became apparent. English became the compulsory foreign language subject from the 5th to 12th grades at schools in the late 1990s. Government programs have been introduced promoting the teaching and learning of the English language across the country. These efforts have included in-service training and teacher development programs. National policies and accreditation criteria have also been enacted to improve EFL teachers' competence and skills. These changes have been made with the intent of better educating teachers of English who can produce skilled workers for a competitive globalised world and be better positioned in the international community. English language capability is considered not only as an essential competence for better employment opportunities, but also a key factor "in facilitating fair access to knowledge and progression through to higher study" (Matear, 2008, p. 134).

Unsurprisingly, SLTE teacher education in Chile has been under considerable public scrutiny. There has been a widely held belief that Chilean teachers of English are inadequately skilled and incapable of effectively teaching English at schools (Ministerio de Educación, 2009a). In addition, standardised tests of students and teachers have consistently demonstrated very low achievement (Ministerio de Educación, 2004, 2011). The measures taken by the Chilean governments in the last ten years to improve the learning and teaching of English have not been enough to extend to the research in the field of SLTE initial teacher education (Castro, 2011). Although there is an increasing number of studies in initial teacher education, there is very little evidence based research available regarding how teachers learn, how the conditions of learning are created, and what is learnt (Díaz & Bastías, 2012). Therefore, there is an urgent need to explore this area and reveal the particularities of this context.

Another reason for undertaking research in SLTE in Chile has been my personal motivation. I have been a teacher of English and a teacher educator in Chile for almost two decades and such experience has inspired me to conduct research in the field of SLTE teacher education. As a teacher educator, I have experienced how teachers are educated to teach EFL both in school and university settings. It is in this series of contexts that critical questions emerged: what does it take to learn to teach English in Chile? What motivates Chilean pre-service teachers to engage in learning to teach EFL? How does the teacher education program curriculum in Chile mediate their learning? How does the dialectical

interplay between EFL pre-service teachers and their social contexts shape pre-service teachers' learning to teach EFL? In essence, most fundamentally, how do Chilean pre-service teachers learn to teach EFL? I am motivated to explore learning to teach EFL in Chile and reveal its peculiarities as a means of contributing to SLTE and its eventual improvement in this context.

The next sections situate the thesis in the scholarly debate of how teachers learn to teach EFL. First, I will locate the thesis in the Chilean context. Then I will position the study in the literature of teacher learning and SLTE.

1.2 SLTE teacher education in Chile

Chile has had a long tradition of SLTE. However, over the last two decades SLTE has had a rapid development that has resulted in an increase in the number of programs offered in the country. This development is a result of a number of factors including: implementation of a free market model in higher education, national educational reforms and the growing pressure for competent English speakers who can participate more actively in a globalised world (Matear, 2008).

Currently, universities and a small percentage of professional institutes (tertiary level) offer EFL teacher education programs in Chile (Ávalos & Aylwin, 2007). Prospective teachers of English enrol in one of the 40 teacher education program providers in the country. The entry requirements vary among the universities, but typically they ask for a low score (450) of the PSU[2], an average of their school grades, and in some cases an interview. Importantly, there is no English proficiency entry requirement and their entry level is generally basic. The research of Ávalos (2005) and Ormeño (2009) indicates that prospective teachers of English are motivated to learn the English language as the primary reason for enrolment. This will be further developed in Chapter 2 and Chapter 7.

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[2] PSU: Prueba de Selección Universitaria is the Chilean standarised test required for university entry.

Historically, SLTE programs in Chile have followed an applied linguistic tradition. This corresponded to a global dominating tendency in the 20th century. The programs based their curricula on recent applied linguistic findings placing special focus on language, and language acquisition. Last century SLTE programs in Chile were characterised by a five year program with a rigid curriculum that typically included three components: the study of linguistic disciplines such as grammar, phonetics, linguistics, and semantics; some other disciplines regarding the culture of English speaking countries, such as literature and history; and a third component which included educational and pedagogical models including teaching strategies, educational theories, and sociological and psychological foundations. The programs usually ended with a capstone teaching practicum and a research thesis.

SLTE programs curricula have changed significantly in the last 20 years. SLTE programs were not the exception of the curricular innovations' initiative promoted by the democratic governments in the 1990s. SLTE programs followed the curricular mandates that required a closer link to the Chilean school reality. In the past, it was very common to follow pedagogical and instructional models from the USA or UK. Consequently, a common feature observed in the new curricula has been the inclusion and increase of sequential school-based experiences (Montecinos et al., 2011). Though the Ministry of Education has recommended the introduction of sequential school-based experiences in the undergraduate teacher education programs, this is not supported formally. There is no system that supports the links between universities and schools, and inductive training for novice teachers are almost non-existent at schools (Ávalos, 2009). Consequently, the implementation of sequential teaching practices has been difficult, not only because of the change itself, but because of the challenge of forming partnerships between schools and universities to implement complex inductive processes to novice teachers. This dilemma will be clearly illustrated in this study.

1.3 Research in SLTE in Chile

In Chile, research efforts on SLTE have been sparse and diverse. The research done for this thesis has evidenced the limited research available in the field and in this context. Some studies have focused on teachers' beliefs (Díaz, 2007), some others on the practicum (Bobadilla, Cárdenas, Dobbs, & Soto, 2009), identity formation (Díaz, Sanhueza, Martínez, & Roa, 2011), teacher mentors and pre-service teachers' relationships (Díaz &

Bastías, 2012), and teachers' metacognitive knowledge (Ormeño, 2009). A study at the macro-level of SLTE teacher education in Chile was completed by Abrahams and Farías (2009) who undertook an analysis of the curricula of six EFL teacher education programs.

Abrahams and Farías identified that there was a divide between the linguistic and the educational disciplines. There has been a historical tension between pedagogy and linguistic disciplines. Another problem identified in this paper was the lack of language achievements of future teachers. Though the programs had put significant effort into language acquisition, prospective teachers did not show achievements corresponding to a proficient command of the language, as was required by the ministerial authorities. The other problematic issue identified was the very inflexible professionalised curriculum. The programs identified that their curricula were vocational and followed a teacher training model (Abrahams & Farías, 2009).

Other seminal studies in SLTE in Chile are the ones undertaken by Díaz and Bastías (2012), and a major research project undertaken by Díaz and Sanhueza (2011) on pre-service teachers' beliefs during the practicum which resonates with this thesis. Díaz and Sanhueza's study demonstrated that pre-service teachers' beliefs are based on their previous experiences as school students, and were also influenced by theoretical underpinnings taught in the program. This study also revealed the dissonance between pre-service teachers' beliefs and their performance as teachers at schools. These authors concluded that the school contexts might have an impact on how pre-service teachers construct their pedagogic knowledge. Though Díaz and Sanhueza's study provides insights into pre-service teachers' beliefs, it does not account for learning to teach EFL as a complex activity in which there are interrelated factors that go beyond the individual beliefs.

Overall, it has been recognised that SLTE needs to be reformulated and improved in Chile (Abrahams & Farías, 2009). However, little research has been done in relation to the understanding of how teachers learn to teach and in which sociocultural contexts the learning takes place and how this is originated. Consequently, this reveals a need for focused scholarly inquiry into SLTE teacher education in Chile.

1.4 What is teacher learning?

From a pure cognitive perspective on teachers' learning, it is considered as an isolated process that happens in the teacher's head (Eggen & Kauchak, 2010). In this conception, pre-service teachers' learning is seen as a simple acquisition of knowledge which could then subsequently be applied in the classroom setting. From this perspective, teacher learning is viewed as a problem of effectiveness in delivery, and the failure of teachers to acquire what is taught is seen as a problem of teachers' inability to overcome resistance to change (Labaree, 2000). This view has proved to be problematic since it not only disregards the contextual realities of a classroom setting and how these mediate pre-service teachers' learning, but it also reifies the stark gap between theory and practice (Hüttner, Mehlmauer-Larcher, Reichl, & Schiftner, 2012).

The gap between theory and practice in teacher education has been studied from different perspectives in the last 30 years. Considerable progress has been made to understand teachers' learning (Hüttner, 2012) from a constructivist orientation. In line with this, there has been considerable discussion regarding what teachers should learn and significant studies have confirmed that to define teachers' knowledge base is a very complex process. For instance, the seminal work of Shulman (1987) provided insights regarding teachers' knowledge. His work illuminated that teaching is not an act of putting theory into practice but a construction of theory and theorising the practice (Hüttner, 2012).

Shulman coined the term *pedagogic content knowledge* which highlighted the fact that subject content knowledge should be adapted into pedagogic content knowledge to be taught (1987). The implications of this finding lie in the assumption that teacher learning is a co-construction process. From Shulman's perspective, the starting point of teachers' knowledge is the theoretical concepts which are applied and adapted to a specific classroom setting. According to this perspective teachers would develop their practical knowledge as they theorise their practice. Although Shulman's proposal was an advance in seeing teachers' knowledge in practice, it did not account for the role of the community in the teachers' learning process.

An alternative perspective adopted to study teachers' learning has been developed from a sociocultural understanding of learning. The conception of *communities of practice,* developed by Lave and Wenger (1991) has become a widely accepted framework used to

examine teachers' learning acknowledging the situated and social nature of learning. This *communities of practice* framework provides an understanding of teacher learning as a process of becoming part of a community. This means that learning to teach is seen as learning to be a teacher. From this view, pre-service teachers learn to teach as they become legitimate members of the school community. The *communities of practice* framework has provided a sense-making theoretical construct to understand the activity of learning to teach in the school context (Tsui, Edwards, Lopez-Real, & Kwan, 2009).

The emergence of school-university partnerships in SLTE is a relatively recent development in teacher education, especially in Chile. School-university partnerships were only introduced as compulsory requirements for teacher education programs in the late 1980s and early 1990s, following education reform demands in developed countries such as the USA and UK (Tsui, et al., 2009). Tsui and Law (2007) suggest that the school-university partnership is potentially beneficial for all parties involved. However, limited research has considered the affordances and constraints of the school-university partnership (Jahreie, 2010). Drawing on Gibson (1979) and Deters (2011), I define affordances and constraints as physical, social and symbolic mediating tools in an activity system that interact with a subject, in this case a pre-service teacher in the activity of learning to teach EFL in Chile. Affordances facilitate goal-oriented actions while constraints limit them (Deters, 2011). An example of affordances can be an effective integration of practical experiences in the curriculum, whereas, constraints can be opposing views between teacher mentors and teacher educators on teaching.

Schools and universities have different orientations towards the epistemic objects defined by their singular culture and history (Jahreie, 2010). This means that each of these institutions orientate their actions towards different goals. While the schools broadly aim to educate children and teenagers to be competent and independent workers, university teacher education programs aim at educating future teachers to teach children and teenagers. Therefore, the partnership of school-university brings tensions to both settings. Then the question arises: how do pre-service teachers learn to teach in this contradictory context?

The contradictory nature of learning to teach is evidenced through the studies of learning in boundary zones. Tsui and Law's (2007) pivotal study, for example, argued that pre-service teachers learn to teach as they engage and participate in both communities: at school and university. These authors demonstrate that pre-service teachers traverse from one context to the next one facing different challenges and community expectations. Pre-service teachers not only experience the dissonance between the school and university understandings of teaching and learning, but they have to enact the curriculum in each setting. This implies that pre-service teachers learn to navigate between the two contexts. They learn as new practices are created (Tsui & Law, 2007).

These important findings have informed teacher education programs, which consequently, have started to consider contextual factors in the curriculum and instructional practices as part of student teachers' learning activity (Wright, 2010). Though there is an understanding of the crucial role of teacher's learning at school, not only has the implementation been problematic, but the partnership between schools and universities has offered different challenges to teacher education programs.

1.5 How do teachers learn to teach EFL/ESL[3]?

SLTE has been very much influenced by the studies of second language acquisition (Cross & Gearon, 2004; Freeman, 2009; K. E. Johnson, 2009). This means that the focus has been on how teachers learn a language and about the language itself. As Johnson observes "learning to teach has been viewed as learning about teaching in one context, observing and practising in another, and eventually developing effective teaching behaviours in yet another context" (2009, p. 12). This view of learning to teach a foreign language has been spread around the world and is not only being applied to second language contexts, but being transferred to foreign language settings ignoring cultural and contextual factors (Kamhi-Stein, 2009). In this sense, learning to teach a foreign language has been seen as mastering the foreign language while disregarding teachers' prior learning experiences, beliefs, values and attitudes towards their own learning. This perspective has potentially over-emphasised the role of the language and therefore minimised the focus on learning experience of appropriation and identity negotiation. Reflecting this, the defined focus of

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[3] English as a second language

this thesis is on how pre-service teachers engage in the learning experience and negotiate their emerging identities as teachers of English in Chile.

Johnson's influential work has demonstrated that studying teacher learning as a collective, situated activity offers not only a holistic understanding of what it takes to learn to teach a language, but also offers a pertinent explanatory framework of the nature of teacher learning in second language teacher education. Thus, a sociocultural perspective in understanding how teachers learn to teach a foreign/second language has contributed to problematise and broaden the focus of study on teachers' learning. The focus has moved from what teachers learn and how teachers learn a language, to how teachers understand the language, language teaching and the sociocultural contexts in which teaching learning takes place (K. E. Johnson, 2009). This is the focus of the study reported in this thesis which emphasises the understanding of learning to teach EFL as a socially situated activity.

Even more, this understanding of learning to teach as a socially situated activity shares a common research interest with general teacher education regarding the "persistent theory/practice divide" (K. E. Johnson & Golombek, 2011, p. 2). This concern is explained as it has been observed that what teachers learn about the foreign language, second language acquisition and language use in the university coursework is separate from pedagogy, teaching skills and teaching tasks. This divide is given as there has not been an understanding of learning to teach as an activity with dialectic dynamic in which content knowledge and pedagogic knowledge are mutually constitutive. In other words, "what is taught and what is learnt is essentially shaped by how it is taught and what is learnt, and vice versa" (K. E. Johnson & Golombek, 2011, p. 3). This implies that to confront the gap between theory and practice, learning to teach should be seen as "the development of teaching expertise" (K. E. Johnson & Golombek, 2011, p. 3).

The view of learning to teach as the development of teaching expertise and a teacher identity in SLTE has been coined more recently by researchers and practitioners with a sociocultural perspective (Tsui, 2003). Studies by Johnson and Golombek (2002) and Tsui and Law (2007), for example, have demonstrated that learning to teach a second language involves learning through participating in different communities such as the community of

the school or the SLTE program community or the English speaking community. This view is in line with the understanding of learning to teach as an ongoing process of *becoming* (Clarke, 2008). Thus, learning to teach a second language is not related to a competence of skills and techniques, but a process of transformation. In this sense, if we want to understand how teachers learn to teach, we need to "understand teachers: the professional, cultural, political and individual identities which they claim or which they are assigned to them" (Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005, p. 22) in the communities they work within. This especially resonates with the study reported on this thesis in which pre-service teachers learn to teach EFL as they act as teachers at schools.

As pre-service teachers' learning is not an individual activity, there are other key participants in the process. This includes school teachers and teacher educators who work with pre-service teachers during their practicum and play an important role in pre-service teachers' learning. From a sociocultural perspective, mentors (school teachers as pre-service teachers' mentors) and supervisors (university teachers as supervisors of pre-service teachers' practicum) act as mediating tools that shape teachers' learning. As discussed previously, the practicum experience is such a unique experience that it is very difficult to find patterns in the literature for the roles and tasks of mentors and supervisors. However, there is an apparent consensus that mentoring is beneficial for pre-service teachers' learning as they can contribute to pre-service teachers' development of "noticing skills, professional thinking, and learning from experience" (Malderez, 2009, p. 264). In the same line, it seems that supervisors can help pre-service teachers to develop their ideal teacher image (Gebhard, 2009).

This section did not intend to provide a comprehensive account of the literature related to the study, but to outline important underpinnings to situate and make sense of the study in this thesis. Four themes are outlined here: first, there is an understanding that teacher learning is a situated activity, this means that it takes place in Chile mainly at two settings: at the schools and at the university. Second, teacher learning is a social activity, this means that participating and interacting in a community shapes teachers' learning. Third, teachers' learning is a mediated activity, that is, cultural (beliefs, teacher mentors) and physical tools (textbooks) shape teachers' learning. And fourth, teachers' learning is a dialectic process in which pre-service teachers appropriate concepts, practice and an

identity from their participation, but their actions also shape the activity as a whole. These themes will be elaborated further in the following chapters.

1.6 The study

This thesis reports on a study that explored how a group of final stage pre-service teachers learnt to teach EFL in a teacher education program in Santiago, Chile. In this thesis, I adopt the view of learning as a socially situated activity. Specifically, I define the activity of learning to teach EFL as a collective goal oriented activity in social practices mediated by different cultural, psychological and physical tools. This means that this thesis is not about how pre-service teachers learnt English, but about how they engaged in different actions mediated by different tools to learn to teach EFL. Consequently, this thesis argues that pre-service teachers use their beliefs, the curriculum and practicum as tools that enable them to gain knowledge and skills to act as teachers of English at schools.

The study focused on how a group of late stage Chilean pre-service teachers of English learnt to teach English in the schools and at a teacher education program in Santiago, Chile. The data used for this study consisted of a complex set: interviews of pre-service teachers, teacher mentors and teacher educators; document analysis; observations; and pre-service teacher's self-reflection reports. The analysis of the data considered three planes: SLTE teacher education at a national level in Chile, the affordances and constraints of the studied SLTE teacher education program in Santiago, and the lived experiences of a group of pre-service teachers in the teacher education program during their teacher practicum. These planes of analysis were considered as they allow us to understand the complexity of the activity in its inter-related layers (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010).

An analytical framework which allows us to examine the interplay of the social practices of pre-service teachers between the school community and the university setting is CHAT. CHAT is a theory of human development, which sees culture as crucial in learning and development (Wells & Claxton, 2002). This theory is founded on the seminal work of Vygotsky (1978) and later developments of Leont'ev (1978) and Engeström (1987). CHAT provides an understanding that "human development relies on the appropriation of pre-existing cultural tools and that this appropriation occurs through social interchange" (Ellis, Edwards, & Smagorinsky, 2010, p. 4). While traditional approaches focus on the

individual and what each individual is doing, a CHAT approach also considers the study of the complex interactions between the teacher, and the sociocultural context, mediated by artefacts; this means with what tools the teacher is acting, where the action takes place, and why the teacher is acting (motivations and goals). Therefore, this study is consciously informed by a CHAT perspective.

Post Vygotskian developments have been variously characterised as sociocultural theory, activity theory and cultural historical activity theory. These names represent the different emphases drawn from Vygotskian propositions, but they share a unifying perspective towards research (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006) which is "to understand the relationship between human mental functioning on the one hand, and cultural, historical, and institutional setting, on the other" (Wertsch, 1995, p. 56). Currently, the name cultural historical activity theory (CHAT) is preferred over sociocultural theory or activity theory in psychology and educational contexts. This seems to be an umbrella super ordinate term to refer to a theoretical perspective which is based mainly on Vygotsky's ideas (Stetsenko, 2005). However, in the SLTE literature, the term sociocultural seems to be preferred. Therefore, as this thesis has an educational focus I use CHAT to refer to sociocultural developments with activity theory underpinnings.

1.7 Aims of the research

This research project has been designed to contribute to the understanding of teachers' learning to teach EFL. Specifically, it explores pre-service teachers' learning to teach EFL in Chile. It contends that it is an under-researched and under-theorised area of second language teacher education. Of the research into teachers' learning that has been undertaken, the vast majority is framed around individual accounts of the experience of teachers' learning. Instead, this thesis will move beyond the debates around teachers' beliefs and teachers' identity formation to explore holistically how a group of pre-service teachers learn to teach EFL as a social activity in a specific teacher education program in Santiago, Chile.

This thesis has two primary aims. First, it aims at understanding the activity of learning to teach EFL in a Chilean teacher education program. It attempts to analyse how pre-service teachers learn to teach EFL examining their actions, motives, the mediating tools and contradictions of the activity. The documentation, thick description and examination of the

activity reported in this thesis will contribute to ongoing discussions in the field of SLTE, especially in EFL contexts. It is also anticipated that this study will contribute to providing a stepping stone for potential improvement of SLTE in Chile, and specifically to the teacher education program studied.

Second, this thesis aims to make a methodological contribution as it analyses how pre-service teachers learn to teach as a multi-voiced, collective activity. The activity is analysed with its different layers, and settings. This analysis provides a holistic and integrative understanding of how a group of final stage pre-service teachers learn to teach EFL in a Chilean teacher education program, between the university coursework and the teaching practicum at the schools. Therefore, it is expected that this study contributes to illuminate the dialectic nature of teacher learning and its contradictory dynamics between national educational policies, teacher education program, between theory and practice, and between pre-service teachers' views and classroom reality.

1.8 Research questions

The thesis addresses the following questions:

Primary question:

How do a group of final stage pre-service teachers learn to teach English in a Chilean SLTE teacher education program?

Secondary questions:

1. What motivates pre-service teachers to engage in learning to teach EFL?
2. In which way does the curriculum of the SLTE program mediate pre-service teachers' learning?
3. How do school-based experiences and specifically the teaching practicum impact on pre-service teachers' learning to teach English?
4. What tensions and contradictions emerge in the school-university partnership?

5. How does CHAT illuminate the complex dialectical interplay between EFL pre-service teachers and the sociocultural context that shape how they learn to teach EFL?

1.9 Thesis outline

To explore these research questions, the thesis uses a series of analytical planes to develop a holistic examination of how a group of final stage pre-service teachers learn to teach EFL in a Chilean teacher education program. The CHAT perspective in the study provides the framework to develop this analysis: explaining how pre-service teachers learn to teach EFL within a social activity system. This thesis through its developing chapters reveals the interplay of the differing planes that shape the activity of learning to teach EFL in Chile. These dimensions are: the sociocultural broader context, the institutional, the personal and the interpersonal planes.

Following on from this introductory chapter, the first plane –the sociocultural dimension which frames how pre-service teachers learn to teach EFL in Chile – is elaborated in Chapter 2. This chapter articulates the cultural and historical origins of SLTE teacher education in Chile. It includes an overview of the Chilean educational system, the national curriculum, and the place of the English subject. Chapter 3 presents a review of the literature of the broader research field of SLTE. It examines relevant previous research done with a focus on learning to teach EFL and is developed with four key themes that emerge from the literature: SLTE curriculum, teachers' beliefs, teacher identity and the role of school-based experiences in the activity of learning to teach EFL.

Chapter 4 presents the theoretical framework of this thesis, CHAT. This chapter discusses the main tenets of CHAT starting with Vygotsky's legacy and underpinnings of what learning is from this perspective. Then more recent developments of this tradition are discussed. Three generations of activity theory are explained and theoretical concepts to be used in the analysis will be elaborated here

The methodology of this research study is presented in Chapter 5. The research design, data collection methods, role of the researcher, trustworthiness and ethical issues are discussed here. This chapter discusses the challenges that CHAT offered to the research design, and argues for its potentiality as an explanatory tool. This chapter also includes a rich description of the context of the study and research settings.

Following the description of the research methods used, I dedicate three chapters to reporting the findings of the study. Chapter 6 presents the data analysis process of this study which explores the data collected within the final two planes: the teacher education program and from pre-service teachers. In this chapter, the data generated from these four planes of the analysis are subjected to systematic thematic and activity theory based exploration using key themes emerging from the data.

The analysis of how the curriculum of the studied SLTE program and the practicum mediated the learning experiences of prospective teachers will be reported on Chapters 7 and 8. The findings are presented drawing data from the national curriculum for teachers, the program's curriculum, and the participants' perceptions of the curriculum. According to the data analysed, the curriculum appeared to be a key mediating tool in the learning activity. Chapter 7 presents how pre-service teachers appropriated theoretical and practical tools to teach English mediated by the curriculum of the program. Chapter 8 reveals the complex and conflicting nature of learning as a student and a teacher at the same time. This chapter argues that at the school setting, *learning to be/act* as a teacher becomes the ultimate goal of the activity.

The inherent contradictions that emerged in the analysis of the activity of learning to teach EFL in Chile will be explored in Chapter 9. Contradictions were identified at various domains: the national sociocultural context, the SLTE teacher education program and the lived experiences of the pre-service teachers; at different levels of the activity, within each component of the activity, within the subjects (pre-service teachers), between the components, for example, between pre-service teachers and the community, and between activity systems, very clearly in this case, between the university and the schools where pre-service teachers completed their practicum.

The concluding chapter of this thesis (Chapter 10), summarises the key findings of the study, interprets them in light of the theoretical framework and discusses some of its implications for SLTE and CHAT. It also discusses the limitations of the study and some suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2: The sociocultural domain: The Chilean context

2.1 Introduction

This chapter underlines the significance of the Chilean context providing a framework that situates the study reported in this thesis. I offer a comprehensive discussion on the cultural and historical background of Chilean educational system and teacher education. This is important because it helps to trace the changes and particularities of the context and also to contextualise the status of SLTE in Chile. Thus, this chapter presents an overview of the changes in the Chilean educational system over the past 30 years. It should be noted that the participants of this study have been protagonists of this historic period playing different roles as school students, school teachers, university lecturers, and pre-service teachers. The second part of the chapter outlines the national curriculum to understand the place of English as a foreign language subject. Then, the main challenges of SLTE in Chile are discussed. It focuses on SLTE teacher education programs discussing their curriculum and the practicum.

2.2 Historical Background

Chilean educational system: past and present

Chilean current formal educational system is the result of political and economic changes in the last 30 years. From the mid-1970s neoliberal ideas progressively dominated the Chilean political and economic discourses under the dictatorship of Augusto Pinochet[4]. These ideas promoted unfettered free market policies and limited the role of the state as mediator of wealth and social sectors (Matear, 2006; Rodriguez-Remedi, 2008). The imposed reforms caused dramatic changes in the economic, social, political and cultural sectors of Chile. The model implemented market de-regularisation, trade liberalisation, political decentralisation, social expenditure reductions, as well as the broad scale privatisation of industry health, pensions, and education. The reforms resulted in a dramatic shift from a culture which viewed educational provision as a fundamental right, to a culture of market that emphasised the freedom of choice of the user as a consumer rather than as a citizen (Matear, 2006).

[4] Augusto Pinochet's dictatorship lasted from 1973 to 1989.

The model in education promoted the reduction of the role of the state in the educational system. The decentralisation of education involved the transfer of the management of local schools to municipal governments. As a result of this reform, a segregated system of schools was institutionalised: municipal government funded schools, private schools subsidised by the government, and fee paying private schools (Matear, 2006). Decentralisation had a huge impact on funding as municipal governments had to provide a schooling system using their municipal funds. As a result, wealthier municipalities could afford the new challenge of administering schools more effectively than the poorer. This measure promoted a dramatic stratification of the public school system (Carnoy & McEwan, 2003).

Pinochet's educational model also promoted the privatisation of the school system. This system established a voucher-type government subsidy available for private and municipal schools. This measure prompted private schools to enter the marketplace and compete for government vouchers (Carnoy & McEwan, 2003; Horn, Nolen, Ward, & Campbell, 2008). This has resulted in a proliferation of for-profit schools with an increase of student enrolment in this type of institution. By 1997, student enrolments had increased by more than 40 percent in the subsidised schools over the municipal ones (World Bank, 2001). In 2012, the enrolment of subsidised schools had been maintained (OECD, 2012a). Most of the pre-service teachers who participated in the study reported here come from subsidised schools in Santiago.

Despite Pinochet's assurances about the new educational reform as one way to equalise the quality of education for poorer students, the new system instead institutionalised stratification and inequality in access to quality education (McEwan, Urquiola, & Vargas, 2008). As Carnoy & McEwan (2003) point out, inequality is given not only for the differences between wealthier and poorer municipalities, but also by the poverty cycle. This means that while families with less education are less capable of searching for appropriate information regarding quality schools, more resourceful families will have more opportunities to access a wider range of schools. Consequently, poor children attend under-resourced and low performing schools perpetuating inequality and lack of access to quality education. Several studies have evidenced that poor results at school are a factor associated with socio-economic background and that the level of attainment at primary and secondary school impacts, in turn, on the preparedness for entry into higher education (Brunner, 1997; Matear, 2006). This stratification is also a significant influence in teacher education, as most prospective teachers in Chile come from lower socio-economic backgrounds, and their entry PSU scores are the

lowest compared to other professions.

At the higher education level, the educational model introduced by the dictatorship also allowed and promoted private operators to run universities (Matear, 2006). Before the 1980 constitution, higher education institutions in Chile were characterised as "small, elitist, and relatively homogeneous" (Matear, 2006, p. 36). A core group of institutions (eight), all funded by the state operated a selective admissions system. This system was restricted to a small number of places available to potential students and tuition was free (Brunner, 2000). The 1980 reform restructured the system completely, with 25 publicly funded universities grouped into CRUCH, *Consejo de rectores de las universidades Chilenas* (16 belong to the state and nine are private). These universities are funded by the state, but mostly via student fees. Though this group is very diverse regarding their range of educational activities and the quality of their output (Bernasconi & Rojas, 2004), they are considered leading Chilean universities.

As a result of the market being opened to universities in the 1990s, there was an explosion of new private tertiary institutions and by 1999 there were more than 40 private universities, 65 professional institutes, and 120 technical training centres (Persico, 2000). This trend has continued since 2000, and according to a report by the OECD in 2012, there are 60 private universities (OECD, 2012b). The study reported in this thesis took place in a private university which was founded in the late 1990s.

With the return of democracy in 1990, it was expected that the neoliberal domination of the education system would change. However, the model has only been subject to minor reform, and the state has remained with a very limited regulatory capacity (Brunner, 2000). The lack of regulation made it very easy for new private universities to position themselves in the market. They supplied the demand that public universities had not been able to and provided access for a wider range of students to higher education. In this way, Chilean tertiary education moved from elite to a mass system in a short period of time. By 2012 the coverage of enrolment increased to 55 per cent (Ministerio de Educación, 2012). Private institutions had captured more than 70 per cent of the total student enrolment (OECD, 2012b). Although access to higher education has been guaranteed, this same guarantee has not necessarily applied to quality. A conflict of goals in Chilean tertiary education is apparent, on one hand the widening access of education has been very successful, but on the other, there has not been any assurance regarding the delivery of quality.

Currently all Chilean universities charge tuition fees, and the market plays a regulatory role. Although the current educational policy of the country states that tertiary education should be available to anyone with academic merits and that no one should be admitted or excluded from higher education on anything other than academic criteria (Matear, 2006), the access to quality higher education is determined by how much a student can pay. This has resulted in families incurring huge debts to pay for university fees. For instance, most of the participants of the study in this thesis come from lower socio-economic backgrounds, and therefore had to seek loans to pay the university fees. It is also relevant to note that some of the participants were beneficiaries of scholarships that covered part of their tuition fees granted by the university. The diversification and substantial increase in numbers of higher education institutions has had a significant impact on teacher education programs as we will see later in the chapter.

As the studied program aims at educating qualified teachers of English in Chile to work in both primary and secondary education, it is useful to consider the history of teacher education in Chile which I cover in the next section. This account outlines how teachers have been trained in Chile from the last century until the present.

Teacher education in the Chilean context: A historical overview

Primary teacher education

Before the second half of the 19th century, teacher education was non-existent in the country. At that time, the clergy and highly dedicated scholars from Europe served as tutors to the children of aristocratic families (Ávalos, 2003). However, this model did not survive long. In 1842, the escuela normal (normal school) was founded. This school had the purpose of providing secondary schooling to boys while at the same time providing them with the opportunity to qualify as primary school teachers if they completed an extra two years. Not long after, in 1854, escuela normal for girls was founded, applying the same model implemented with boys. Escuelas normales became very successful and reflecting this was still educating prospective teachers until 1988 (Ávalos, 2003).

With the arrival of the 20th century education became an urgent more recognised social need. The 1920 law of compulsory primary schooling increased the demand for teachers. The law also incorporated courses of teacher development for improving pedagogical practices in the Chilean classrooms. The escuelas normales started working directly with Universidad de

Chile (University of Chile), particularly with a recently founded instituto pedagógico (pedagogical institute). This institute was part of the Faculty of Philosophy and Humanities of the University of Chile (Ávalos, 2005). The instituto pedagógico supervised escuelas normales and accredited their teaching program. Escuelas normales and the university shared a common goal towards the professionalisation of primary school teachers (Ávalos, 2003).

The professionalisation of primary school teachers in Chile was enhanced not only by a secondary education to prospective teachers, but also by further education in pedagogical models. At escuelas normales, after they finished their secondary education, prospective teachers had to continue years of higher education where they were educated in educational theories and pedagogical models (Núñez, 2002). Students who enrolled in the escuelas normales were rigorously selected and gained a well-recognised pedagogical grounding. By the end of the 1920s, primary school teachers had to sit for an exam given by the university, and if passed successfully, a university diploma accredited their professional capability. Escuelas normales gained high prestige in the country as a result of their success training teachers in the 20th century (Núñez, 2002).

Escuelas normales and university teacher education programs coexisted for most of the 20th century. With more educational demands in the country, from the 1940s regional universities and the catholic university in Santiago opened teacher education programs as well. Escuelas normales continued working effectively, especially in rural parts of the country. These schools impacted very positively and effectively in promoting social mobility in the country (Ávalos, 2003). However, in the 1980s, Pinochet's dictatorship decided to close the escuelas normales and transfer the students and teachers to the closest universities. This marked the end of over a hundred years of *normalismo* in Chile (Núñez, 2002).

Secondary teacher education

Secondary teacher education in Chile originated with the foundation of the previously mentioned instituto pedagógico in 1890. The pedagogical institute offered a concurrent program of education for future secondary teachers, subject specialisation and pedagogical preparation. As tension emerged between the discipline and pedagogy, the concurrent program was discontinued (Ávalos, 2005). For more than a decade, a consecutive program was implemented and prospective teachers were taught the discipline in the first three years of training and the pedagogy in the last two (Ávalos, 2005). This tension between the discipline

and pedagogy still exists today in teacher education programs. In 1945, the pedagogical institute renewed the curricular model of the programs, and the concurrent program was reinstalled for secondary education. The programs offered specialisation in history, maths, natural sciences, Spanish, French, German, and English.

The instituto pedagógico was the leader of secondary teacher education in the first half of the 20th century. Not only was it the leader because it was the main provider for secondary teacher education programs, but also due to the prestige and recognition of the institute (Ávalos, 2003). By 1950, other universities opened secondary teacher education programs due to the demand in the country for secondary education. The new universities adopted the concurrent program following Universidad de Chile's lead. Several influential thinkers, poets, diplomats, scientists, and educators were formed at the instituto pedagógico (Ávalos, 2005). A former president of the country, Pedro Aguirre Cerda, and the Nobel Prize winner, Pablo Neruda, were graduates from the institute.

The institute experienced decay and eventual death with the arrival of the dictatorship in 1973. The teacher education programs were ideologically manipulated and a number of academics were sacked, particularly the ones working in social sciences. In addition, the eight existing universities of the country were subject to intervention by the military. The pedagogical institute decayed from this time until its death in 1981 (Núñez, 2002).

In 1981, teacher education was demoted from a university status to a vocational domain (Núñez, 2002). This resulted in the separation of the instituto pedagógico from Universidad de Chile. The former pedagogical institute was renamed and the two campuses were converted into two higher education academies. This change had a traumatic effect on academic staff and the community as a whole. The academics and the community protested and forced the military authorities to retract (Ávalos, 2005). In 1987, the higher academies were converted into pedagogical universities. However, the status of teacher education as a university profession was only recovered in 1990 with the return of a democratic government.

In 1986, the pedagogical university of Santiago, Universidad Metropolitana de Ciencias de la Educación (UMCE) became the successor of the instituto pedagogic (Ávalos, 2005). Though the pedagogical university still dominates the teacher education coverage, it is going through an arduous process of recovery of quality and prestige for the teacher profession (Ávalos, 2005). UMCE is today the biggest national public provider of teacher education programs in

all specialisations. However, private universities offer a wide range of teacher education programs including SLTE programs and their enrolment is higher than public universities (OECD, 2012b).

In the late 1990s funding was introduced for the improvement and strengthening of initial teacher education programs (Ávalos, 2005). Universities have been able to apply for these funds to redesign their programs. This initiative resulted in 17 universities implementing new curricula in their teacher education programs during 1997-2002 (Ávalos, 2005). The changes included curriculum updates, gradual and longer teaching practice experiences, and improvement of infrastructure and teaching resources. The changes introduced in each university depended on the particular needs that each had at the time of implementation. However, one common effect was the restructure of the teaching practices being evidenced in the increase of sequential teaching practice in the programs (Ávalos, 2009; Montecinos, et al., 2011). This will be evidenced in the teacher education program studied for this thesis.

Currently, universities and a small percentage of professional institutes (tertiary level) offer teacher education programs in Chile (Ávalos & Aylwin, 2007). Primary school teachers undertake a four year program which trains prospective teachers for the whole curriculum range from 1st to 6th grade. In the case of secondary teachers, they are usually trained in a five year program. Regarding SLTE teacher education programs, historically, have educated teachers of English for secondary lever. However, in the last ten years, some programs are training future teachers of English for both levels as there is a demand for teachers of English especially in primary school. During only the last decade, the Ministry of Education through the accreditation program has suggested that teacher education programs should include sequential practical experiences at schools and a set of standards to assess the teaching performance of prospective teachers (Ávalos, 2005).

Accreditation of teacher education programs

After the implementation of the curricular changes, the challenge for teacher education programs has been quality assurance. The accreditation of teacher education programs started as a voluntary initiative, but from 2009 the system became compulsory for all teacher education programs across the country. The process consists of an internal review followed by an external peer review. Though the accreditation of the program is compulsory, autonomous institutions have the right to offer any program and the market plays a regulatory function

relying on informed personal decisions (OECD, 2012b). This fact, as the OECD report (2012b) pointed out, may trigger a "focus on income generation and profitability rather than teaching and research" (p. 31) in higher education, especially in crucial fields such as teacher education.

From 2000, the Ministry of Education implemented a set of standards for initial teacher education as expected graduate attributes (Ávalos, 2005). These attributes define the expected outcomes of prospective teachers' knowledge base and teaching skills. The criteria are set into four categories: preparing to teach, setting an appropriate classroom environment, teaching interaction, and professional performance (Ávalos, 2005). The government cannot enforce the institutions to implement them; rather teacher education programs can choose to use them as recommendations to follow.

This section has presented a historical overview of the Chilean educational system. I especially focused on the changes in teacher education in Chile as an outcome of the political, social and cultural events that have taken place in the last 30 years. This historical account is relevant to understand the particularities of the Chilean context broadly and specifically the status of the teacher education program studied in this thesis. The next section presents the current Chilean schooling system. This provides key information to make sense of the work that prospective teachers of English in Chile would do.

2.3 Chilean schooling system

Democratic governments after 1990 have made efforts to reform the inherited education system and have made education a more prominent aspect in the political agenda. The main focus of the reforms have considered "the need for a modern education system in a democratic society to overcome inequalities; to promote greater social justice and equity; and to strengthen Chile's entry into a global economy through investment in skills, knowledge and technology" (Matear, 2006, p. 38). Consequently, compulsory education was extended and currently requires 12 years including primary and secondary education. Primary education comprises eight years, and secondary education comprises four years. The new law of education, passed in 2009, changed this distribution to six years in each level, however, the implementation will not be effective until 2017 (Ministerio de Educación, 2012).

National curriculum

One of the main focuses of the educational reform has been the gradual process of installation of new and updated curricula. The first step taken to guide curricular elaboration was the formulation of a series of content and objectives for each subject. The national curriculum has been provided to all schools as a shared common foundation goal (Ministerio de Educación, 2009b). Schools have the right to construct their own curriculum upon it or to implement the government's curriculum, most schools opting for the latter. Some argue, however, that this decision was the only option for many schools which had neither the technical support nor the time to design their own plans and programs (Rodriguez-Remedi, 2008). This is also applicable in the case of the English language program, in which teachers attempt to implement the given curriculum.

The contents and objectives outlined by the Ministry of Education in these last 20 years have been reviewed twice, first in 1998, and recently adjusted in 2009. Schools implement the curriculum given and learning outcomes are measured in national standardised tests: SIMCE[5]. These exams, which test Spanish literacy and maths, are given in 4th grade and 10th grade. From 2010, a national standardised test was introduced to test English proficiency in grade 11. SIMCE tests are compulsory for students from all types of schools. The results are given to schools, and schools with better results usually get monetary incentives. This has created competition among schools, and teachers are requested to specially prepare students for the SIMCE tests. The results of SIMCE have evidenced that poorer schools perform badly, regardless of the type of school they are. Specifically, this has shown that the voucher system has not promoted equality, but on the contrary, it has perpetuated the stratification of the system (McEwan, et al., 2008).

English curriculum: past and present

In the 1990s, Chile's economy grew significantly. This growth generated considerable economic development, but also considered big challenges. The necessity for English was seen as important for the future of Chile because it is a powerful and competitive tool for working in a globalised market (Castro, 2011). At the same time, it became apparent that 90 per cent of information on the Internet, as well as 95 per cent of all academic and scientific

[5] SIMCE stands for National Evaluation System of learning capabilities (Sistema Nacional de Evaluacion de Resultados de aprenizaje)

literature is in English (Castro, 2011). Consequently, by the end of the 1990s, the Ministry of Education decided that English should be taught at schools compulsorily from 5th grade.

The first educational reform in the 1990s regarding English curriculum aimed at developing receptive skills (listening and reading). The English curriculum directed that 40 per cent of the English curriculum should be devoted to reading comprehension, 40 per cent should be devoted to listening comprehension and 20 per cent to writing and speaking (Ministerio de Educación, 2009a). The basis for this decision was justified by suggesting that English for Chileans is a tool that allows people to access the literature. The emphasis on receptive skills would allow people to access the global economy and information network (McKay, 2003). This emphasis left behind the previous curriculum which had an even more limited spectrum on the knowledge of linguistic items in the foreign language.

The discourse regarding the importance of learning English became apparent in significant public statements. One clear example of Chile's determination to promote the learning of English is the signed agreement in 2004 at APEC. Chile agreed with the Skills for the Coming Challenges (APEC Secretariat, 2004) which emphasised the development of competences to be successful in the globalised world: to be proficient in English and competent in the use of technology for teaching and learning. The government saw the need for Chilean citizens to be trained in English to respond to the global market. Furthermore, the Ministry of Education stated that to "improve national economic competitiveness and promote equity by extending English language learning to all students in publicly funded schools" (Matear, 2008, p. 138). The reform was implemented with a significant number of difficulties. The most dramatic obstacle to implement the reform has been the lack of qualified teachers of English able to teach at the primary level. This led to the recent proliferation of new SLTE teacher education programs in the country discussed earlier.

The Chilean Ministry of Education claimed that the reformed curriculum for English was designed to reflect the students' real needs and context, taking into account the learners' geographical location, their socio-economic conditions, and the demands of the modern world. English was seen as a means to access information from academic, technological and productive sources; and as a way of gaining access to other cultures and realities, and increase learner autonomy. In short, the curriculum stressed the development of listening and reading comprehension skills, giving speaking and writing a subsidiary role (Ormeño, 2009).

English curriculum reform in Chile

The pragmatic and instrumental orientation and the emphasis given to receptive skills (reading and listening) in authentic discourse samples constituted the main difference between the past curriculum until the 1980s and the first reform of the English curriculum. This instrumental orientation given to the learning of English in Chile challenged traditional teaching methods (Ormeño, 2009). Teachers were requested not only to change the content, but the didactics of the English lesson. For example, they were expected to use mainly authentic texts from English speaking countries in their lessons, and to be able to teach students how to understand those texts. This marked a big change from the traditional grammar translation method used in language classrooms before. They were also advised to create a non-threatening classroom atmosphere (Ormeño, 2009) in which making mistakes is part of the learning process.

Another major departure from the previous situation was that with the reform students started having more English lessons per week and more years of English study in municipal and subsidised schools (Ormeño, 2009). The expectation at that time was that students were better prepared to meet the demands of a globalised world. Despite globalisation, however, for Chilean students contact with the English language and culture is still limited due to Chile's distant geographical location and the high costs involved in foreign travel. Hence, it is mostly restricted to contact with business people, tourists from America, Europe and Eastern countries, email and the Internet. In fact, travelling to English speaking countries is still not common for the average Chilean citizen.

By 2000, the reform of the English curriculum was evaluated as positive by school teachers (Farías, 2000). Farías reported in his study that teachers evaluated the curricular reform as beneficial since it encouraged them to change their class methodology and objectives. Another positive aspect of the reform in the English sector was the distribution of textbooks and cassettes to students of municipal and subsidised schools. These textbooks followed the Ministry guidelines that encouraged the use of Chilean context topics instead of contents from English speaking countries. Teachers also evaluated as positive the focus on receptive skills rather than on productive skills. According to McKay (2003), Chilean teachers in her study felt more comfortable without the pressure of using communicative language teaching for speaking purposes. They reported that doing speaking activities with 45 students was not possible. Though teachers evaluated the reform as positive, they perceived it as challenging

and very difficult to implement under current school conditions. The change to the national curriculum in English not only encouraged in-service teachers to change their teaching practices, but also as we will see later, SLTE programs were forced to change their training models as well.

The pre-service teachers of the study reported here were school students when the reform started to be implemented. This means, as confirmed by the interviews of pre-service teachers in this study, that they were supposed to be taught English with an instrumental goal, being able to read and understand key information from oral and written texts. However, most pre-service teachers reported that their teachers used the grammar translation method, and that the focus of the lesson was the mastery of grammatical rules of the English language.

Amendments to the reform in the English curriculum

In 2009, the Ministry of Education made adjustments to the content and objectives in the English curriculum. Although the instrumental goal remained, emphasising the need to learn English in Chile as one way to access information, knowledge and technology, and be competent in a globalised world (Ministerio de Educación, 2009a), it has been acknowledged that the emphasis on receptive skills (listening and reading) is not enough to make Chilean citizens competent in the global market. Consequently, the 2009 curricular adjustment introduced a new level of expectation regarding the productive skills: speaking and writing. This adjustment delineated objectives and contents and put an equal expectation for the development of the four language skills.

The contents and objectives of the new adjustment are aligned with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFRL) (Council for Cultural Co-operation. Education Committee. Modern Languages Division, 2001). The ministry decided to use CEFRL as a way to support the English curriculum to well-known international standards and follow a trend that other countries in South America and Asia, such as Colombia, China and Taiwan adopted. In line with this, eight year contents and objectives are aligned with the level A2 of CEFRL and 12 year contents corresponded to B1 level. These standards had been announced in 2004 as desired goals to be achieved, but in 2009 the curricula adjustments were made in the national Chilean curriculum.

One interesting aspect of the new curriculum is the emphasis of lexicon acquisition apart from the development of skills. The adjustment includes a number of words expected to be

commanded by students and strategies and techniques for teachers to develop the acquisition of the new lexicon. This decision seems to be based on the assumption that the English language in Chile is widely used to access information and knowledge from academic literature and media.

Another meaningful inclusion in the curricular adjustment is the role of the mother tongue in learning English. The ministry explicitly stated that when the reform started, the use of Spanish was vastly used and promoted as a means to demonstrate the understanding of English texts in the classroom (Ministerio de Educación, 2009a). However, as the adjustment considers the development of the receptive and productive skills altogether, the role of the mother tongue should change. Thus, the new curriculum advocates for the use of Spanish in the English classroom only as a tool. Teachers should use Spanish as another methodological tool that promotes learning, but English should be used as much as possible. This curricular adjustment has a direct impact on initial teacher education which makes it challenging to align their curriculum to the national curriculum.

The impact of the curricular reform in English are not being realised quickly. The results of the SIMCE test in 2010 showed an insignificant statistical increase from the results in 2004 (Ministerio de Educación, 2004). In 2012, students sat for another round of exams, results were not available when this thesis was printed.

The implementation of the new curriculum for English needed a boost in the country. Consequently, the government created a special program to do so. The next section presents the government program *English opens doors*, its functions and links with the education of English teachers in Chile.

English opens doors

The implementation of the new demands regarding the learning and teaching of English required a new organisation that could respond to that need. A special program dependent from the Ministry of Education was founded: *English opens doors* aimed at preparing students in English and promoting the knowledge of English among school-aged children (Castro, 2011). The program aimed at functional bilingual students by 2018. Since 2004, *English opens doors* has organised a wide range of activities for both teachers and students (teacher training courses, debate contests, public speaking, summer camps, and a semester abroad for future teachers) to improve the teaching/learning process. *English opens doors*

suggested standards of achievement for the Chilean community including in-service teachers. SLTE programs have adopted these standards and their curricula attempts to meet these language proficiency criteria for pre-service teachers.

Although *English opens doors* has promoted the teaching and learning of English, it still receives criticism (Castro, 2011). Lack of resources and qualified teachers, especially for subsidised and municipal schools, are the major complaints against the program. In 2006, it was reported that only 55 per cent of English teachers in Chile had certified qualifications in teaching English and that most of these teachers taught the courses in Spanish (Castro, 2011). As a result, *English opens doors* began an exchange program to attract and bring native English speakers to the Chilean classrooms. This measure has been questioned since the only requirements for the positions offered are: being a native English speaker and holding a university degree; teaching certification is not needed, meaning that the students are still receiving sub-par instruction (Castro, 2011). It seems that there is an underlying assumption that being a native speaker of English is good enough to teach the language. As reported by Romero (2012) in her study, "it seems that anyone can be a teacher but can any teacher be effective?" (p. 38).

Another criticism towards *English opens doors* is regarding the lack of formal links with English teachers and SLTE programs. There is no apparent system in which universities work collaboratively with the government program. This fact works against the improvement of the teaching and learning of English as the participants do not reflect why they are learning/teaching English, and how that learning would potentially improve their lives.

In short, though *English opens doors* has promoted knowledge of English in the country, there is still a lot to be done to make Chile a bilingual country. The program has promoted access to English to municipal and subsidised students with activities such as summer/winter camps and spelling bee competitions. However, it is necessary to devote more resources to provide more hours of quality English classes with qualified teachers to make Chile a bilingual country (Castro, 2011).

In this section, I presented the current Chilean schooling system including the curricular reform in the English sector. I also devoted a short subsection on the *English opens doors* program which has contributed to the teaching and learning of English in the country in the past five years. The next section of the chapter examines the current particularities of SLTE in

Chile, especially focused on SLTE initial teacher education.

2.4 SLTE in Chile

As outlined earlier, English has been present in the schooling system for a long time. However, only in the last 20 years has it taken more prominence in the national curricula. For most of the 20th century, only secondary teachers of English were trained, due to the fact that English was only part of the curriculum in secondary education. In private elite schools, English had been taught at all levels, however, the teachers in those schools were usually native English speakers, and/or teachers educated overseas. From 1996, English became the only compulsory foreign language taught in the country, while some private schools continued offering specific foreign languages such as German or French. As Chile became economically more competitive globally, the democratic governments decided to put a special emphasis into the teaching and learning of English. This social aspiration made visible the need for an increasing number of competent teachers of English.

SLTE teacher education programs

One of the consequences of the national educational reform has been the explosion of new EFL teacher education programs in the recent decade. This increase is justified as discussed earlier by the need for more English teachers, and the public discourse regarding making Chile a bilingual country. This fact has created concerns regarding the quality of those programs (Abrahams & Farías, 2009). Here it is important to note that English is the only compulsory foreign language in the national curriculum. Thus, programs that train teachers of other languages are currently almost non-existent.

Ormeño (2009) evaluated SLTE teacher education programs in Chile as following a teacher training model, rather than a developmental or reflexive approach. This means that teacher education programs aim at providing the necessary knowledge and skills to be able to teach EFL and mould them. Although, it has been acknowledged by teachers (Ávalos & Aylwin, 2007) and the national policy that a developmental approach would be more beneficial, it is apparent that the adaptation and implementation has not taken place without difficulty (Ormeño, 2009). This aspect will be clearly seen in the study, as on one hand, the teacher education program possessed a clear discourse towards a democratic approach in which future teachers are reflexive of their own practices, and on the other hand, they were expected to use single teaching methods in the classroom.

Entry into EFL teaching

As noted earlier, during the 1990s, teaching degrees became very unpopular in Chile, mainly due to the low status given to the profession, as well as the low salaries and difficult working conditions that teachers faced (Ávalos, 2005). This situation has reversed slightly in the last decade as a result of government investment in a program to strengthen initial teacher education, and the provision of grants to encourage young school graduates to enter the teaching profession. This has led to a steady increase in the numbers of people applying for teaching degrees, particularly for the SLTE teacher education programs. This can be explained as teaching English is given a higher status among teaching degrees by the community (Ávalos, 2005).This reason is based on the long-held belief among Chilean society that learning a foreign language gives people a higher status (Ormeño, 2009). Moreover, using Ormeño's words "this high status is based on a belief that learning another language is a difficult process that not everyone can successfully undertake, and that speaking another language is an asset which opens various doors to the future" (p. 103). Though the study reported on this thesis also confirmed a main interest towards language learning, other reasons to enter into EFL teaching can be: orientation towards social change, social mobility, or for opportunistic and instrumental reasons (Ormeño, 2009).

As discussed in Chapter 1, despite the underlying reasons for entry into SLTE teacher education, currently Chileans who want to become teachers of English have to complete a five–year course. The entry requirements are not very demanding. Most private universities require a very low score of the national test, even lower than the minimum accepted in traditional universities. In those universities, the rejection rate is almost non-existent. State funded universities usually require an average score of 600 (maximum of 850), which corresponds to one of the lowest requirement scores compared to other university programs such as law, medicine or engineering. It is also important to note that no English proficiency level is required to enrol in the program. As discussed in Chapter 1, pre-service teachers' entry level of English is generally elementary, as the case of the participants of the study reported in this thesis.

Prospective teachers enrolled in SLTE teacher education programs usually take between five and six years to graduate. Though there has been pressure to shorten the university programs to four years, most of the analysed programs for this study show that the average duration is four and a half years. Programs train prospective teachers for secondary or primary level or

for both levels. As English is a compulsory subject from 5th grade, plus a current trend to start teaching English from 1st grade in both public and private schools, the need for English teachers at both levels is high.

Immediately after graduation, Chilean EFL teachers are considered fully trained without any systematic induction process (Ávalos & Aylwin, 2007). This implies that novice EFL teachers have to be able to work for 40 hours a week in a private or a public school implementing the national curriculum. I agree with Ormeño (2009) who notes that novice Chilean EFL teachers are unique in relation to other EFL teachers in the world, in the sense that they have to cope with the job's challenges exercising their agency and their sense of teacher identity. In this way, Chilean EFL teacher education programs have the urgency to examine their practices, evaluate their programs and provide the best learning experiences for future teachers. This study intends to contribute to revealing this unique context and provide a framework for its understanding and potential improvement.

SLTE teacher education curriculum

Reviewing SLTE teacher education in Chile, I examined the six course structures of the most prestigious programs currently running in 2013. This analysis suggests that the programs have defined a clear set of components to be acquired by the prospective teachers. In this regard, I agree with Ormeño, that still "the prevailing approach focuses more on instruction than on the development of trainees" (Ormeño, 2009, p. 94). As discussed in Chapter 1, historically, SLTE programs have designed their curricula based on applied linguistics principles. This means that the programs are characterised by a plan that has a special focus on language, language acquisition, and linguistic disciplines.

SLTE teacher education programs were not the exception of the curricular innovation initiative promoted by the democratic governments in the 1990s. As discussed earlier, the Ministry of Education's initiative intended to update the curriculum of teacher education programs, and improve teacher education in general. The initiative worked arduously to introduce changes regarding activities that would promote a closer link to the Chilean school reality. In the past, it was very common to follow pedagogical and instructional models from English speaking countries, especially from the UK. Textbooks and the type of English taught were dominated by a British tradition.

As a result of the reform, the national policy encouraged programs to include sequential teaching practices alongside the theoretical components of the course. This has resulted in the introduction of a sequential number of school-based experiences. The number and activities vary from program to program ranging from three to six field-based experiences in a typical five year program with a capstone experience of the final practicum.

The practicum

Chilean SLTE teacher education programs have increasingly acknowledged the relevance of school-based experiences in teachers' learning. This is reflected not only in the number of teaching experiences, but also in the expected activities that pre-service teachers have to undertake at the schools. Currently, all programs studied include gradual and guided teaching practice experiences. The last experience, referred to, as the practicum, is usually the placement where pre-service teachers take over more responsibilities of the classroom teacher. The practicum is characterised by the placement of pre-service teachers in a school for a semester (approximately 16 weeks). During that time they have to act as fully formed teachers i.e. prepare lessons, materials, and teach English to at least one group of students.

Pre-service teachers are usually supported by a university lecturer who acts as a supervisor and a school teacher that acts as a mentor. The roles of university educators and school teachers are not very clear. Here it is important to note that most SLTE teacher education programs lack a mentoring and induction process; therefore, there is no systematic procedure to create partnerships with schools.

As will be seen in the study reported in this thesis, the practicum is an experience that varies from school to school, and from university to university.

Initiative to assure the quality of SLTE teacher education

As discussed earlier, with the explosion of private universities in the country, the number of teacher education programs increased dramatically. This rapid and unregulated increase has brought into question the quality of the programs. This is also applicable for the SLTE teacher education programs. One effort to monitor and assure the quality of SLTE teacher education is a consortium of six universities that was formed at the beginning of the 21st century. The universities belonging to the consortium were five state funded universities and one private university. These universities have been leaders in the field and their academics are very well-

known. This is one of the reasons why I decided to undertake the research study in one of the universities which is part of this consortium. This consortium's goal was to delineate a profile of a teacher of English for Chile and elaborate curricular recommendations that were coherent with that profile. The outcome of that collaborative work is evidenced in a paper by Abraham and Farías (2009) who reported this case as a struggle for innovation in SLTE teacher education.

The analysis of the course structure of the six SLTE teacher education programs participating in the consortium evidence that current SLTE curricula in Chile is characterised by a strong emphasis on the acquisition of English. As pre-service teachers enrol in the programs with a very basic level of English, there is an apparent need to meet increased standards. The duration of the programs on average is four and a half years. Linguistic subjects such as grammar and phonetics usually have a predominant place in the first three years. Teaching skills are usually taught in the last two years of the programs in specific methodology courses. Subjects related to educational theories are scattered around the program and they vary from educational philosophy to sociology of education. Most programs show a sequential introduction of teaching practices and they rarely have a supported mentoring system.

Before the consortium developed a consensus of a preferred English teacher profile for Chile, they did a diagnostic examination of the problematic issues in their own programs. The academics identified that there was a divorce between the linguistic disciplines and the educational ones (Abrahams & Farías, 2009): There has been a historical tension between the subjects related to language knowledge base and pedagogical skills. The divide between these two domains was considered detrimental to prospective teachers' learning. Paradoxically, despite special focus on language acquisition, the language achievements in pre-service teachers' learning have not been very high. The participants of the consortium reported that Chilean teachers of English do not comply with the minimum standard expected by the Ministry of Education.

The other problematic issue identified was the very inflexible professionalised curricula (Abrahams & Farías, 2009). The academics recognised that their curricula were vocational and following a teacher training model. This conclusion is in accordance with the evaluation of Ormeño (2009). The diagnostic examination of the consortium not only illuminated the problematic issues in their programs, but contributed to the proposal of a new profile of the

teacher of English for Chile and the corresponding curricular changes to be made in the programs (Abrahams & Farías, 2009).

The outcome of this work pointed out that the SLTE teacher education programs in Chile should be designed on the basis of the following four recommendations: first, an SLTE program should be designed with an integrated skills approach. This means that English should be taught integrating content from other subjects such as literature or psycholinguistics. Second, a content-based learning approach should be emphasised in which prospective teachers learn that language is a powerful tool to deal with engaging and meaningful content. These two recommendations intended to end the historic divide of language acquisition and knowledge about language. The third recommendation of the consortium was towards the adoption of a critical pedagogy. This recommendation was based on the assumption that adopting a participatory approach towards teaching and learning in the program would empower prospective teachers to be more reflective and democratic practitioners. The fourth recommendation pointed in the direction of introducing a mentoring system in the programs. This system would train school teachers to become mentors for pre-service and novice teachers. These two last suggestions are the most difficult ones to implement. Both a critical pedagogy and the introduction of a mentoring system required systemic changes that go beyond the curricular designs of the programs (Abrahams & Farías, 2009).

The implementation of the seeds planted by the consortium has not gained enough roots yet. Each participating university is taking the recommendations and implementing gradual changes. However, not a single university is completely following these recommendations from my analysis of their curricula and course structure. Despite that, the participating universities of the consortium are the leaders in SLTE teacher education in Chile, not in number of enrolments, but based on reputation and knowledge in the field. I confirmed the leadership of the consortium as I examined other SLTE programs. Most of them followed the curricular design of the leading universities. It is important to note that the teacher education program studied for this thesis is part of the consortium. The program is situated in a private university and their academics are active members of professional academic organisations and highly influenced by the recommendations of the consortium.

2.5 Conclusions to the chapter

In this chapter, I have situated SLTE teacher education in Chile presenting its historical and cultural background context. The Chilean educational system was described and the place of English in the national curriculum was discussed. A historical outline of teacher education and SLTE teacher education ended the chapter with a comprehensive view of how teachers of English have been educated. I wrote this chapter as one way to explore the historical and cultural factors that have shaped the activity of learning to teach EFL. As discussed in this chapter, SLTE teacher education has not only been under scrutiny in the last 20 years, but has changed significantly. These changes situated in the complex educational Chilean system impact on how current pre-service teachers learn to teach and become teachers of English in Chile.

Although teachers of English have been trained in Chile for more than one hundred years, there is concern about the quality of SLTE teacher education in relation to the national demands. Chilean policy aligned with current literature in the field urge for teachers who can be social agents, flexible and multifaceted. Thus, despite the personal motives that bring individuals into the teaching profession, SLTE programs can play a crucial role in shaping teachers' learning not only providing them with knowledge of English but rather facilitating their development as teachers of English. Teachers' development is a complex enterprise that requires a holistic examination that accounts for the different layers of complexities.

One way to look comprehensively at how teachers learn to teach EFL is through the lens of the international literature in the field of SLTE. The next chapter discusses what we already know about how teachers learn to teach a foreign language in other contexts and positions the study in the ongoing debates of the nature of teacher learning and SLTE.

Chapter 3: Reviewing the SLTE literature

3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter the sociocultural dimension presented what we already know about how pre-service teachers learn to teach EFL in Chile. I situated SLTE teacher education in this context exploring the historical and cultural factors that have shaped the activity of learning to teach EFL. This examination revealed its complexity and some historical tensions between the national curriculum and SLTE in Chile.

In this chapter I provide an in-depth account of how teachers learn to teach ESL/EFL from the international literature. I argue that learning to teach EFL is a social activity and present key factors that work as affordances and constraints that shape the activity of learning to teach EFL. As stated on Chapter 1, I understand affordances and constraints as physical, social and symbolic mediating tools in an activity system that interact with subjects, in this case, pre-service teachers in the activity of learning to teach EFL in Chile. Affordances facilitate goal-oriented actions while constraints limit them (Deters, 2011). I see that the review of factors shaping the activity of learning to teach EFL is crucial to situate the study reported on this thesis and understand the possible implications of this research project.

The key factors identified in the literature as affordances and constraints in the activity of learning to teach EFL include: SLTE curriculum, knowledge base, teachers' beliefs, and the role of the practicum in learning to teach, together with teachers' identity. The first section of this review (see 3.2) discusses different curricular models applied in SLTE. This discussion becomes relevant as it reveals the underpinning assumptions of how SLTE programs have been organised around the world to provide prospective teachers with opportunities to acquire knowledge and skills to become teachers of EFL. The different curricular designs presented here reveal the tensions between what to teach and how to teach. Furthermore, in section 3.3, I argue that the knowledge base of SLTE lies in a dialectic relationship between knowledge and skills about language teaching and socialising and teaching as a lived experience immersed in a community. The research on lived experiences of teachers demonstrates the impact of teachers' beliefs in teachers' learning. This is elaborated in section 3.4. The two last sections of this chapter discuss the impact of the school based experiences and how teachers' identity is being formed in the activity of learning to teach EFL. The research reviewed in this last section demonstrates how learning to teach is closely related to learning to be a teacher.

3.2 SLTE curriculum

For the past 30 years there has been a fruitful debate on the goals, knowledge base, content, process and evaluation of SLTE programs (Burns & Richards, 2009; Wright, 2010). As the study reported in this thesis considers the teacher education program as one key setting where pre-service teachers learn to teach, it seems pertinent and relevant to examine the literature regarding curriculum models.

Wright (2010) and Graves (2009) point out that a SLTE curriculum should be a comprehensive answer to questions about the goals, instructional practices and evaluation of the program. In other words, the curriculum should provide the responses to these questions: What is the type of teacher that is going to come out of that program? What are the instructional practices or formal learning experiences that the program considers for the pre-service teachers? And how well the pre-service teachers achieve the goals stated in the program? These questions have been answered differently according to different model (see below) with distinct views of teaching and the understandings of the nature of teacher learning in SLTE.

Models of SLTE curriculum

Historically, SLTE has attempted to balance the development of language knowledge and language teaching and learning with the development of professional teaching competence (Burns & Richards, 2009). The main models applied in SLTE (see Table 3.1 on p.51) are the ones identified by Wallace (1991): the craft model, the applied science model and the reflective model. These models of curriculum reflect different conceptions of what teaching is and how teachers learn to teach a second language.

The craft model

The craft model or the apprenticeship model (see 1st row on Table 3.1) is the oldest form of vocational education and is still used today in some form in SLTE programs. However, in most programs it is used only in the practicum experiences in which pre-service teachers work with school teachers (teacher mentors). This model allows pre-service teachers to develop experiential knowledge. As pre-service teachers engage in teaching they quickly adopt a teacher's role usually imitating their teacher mentor's behaviour (Barduhn & Johnson, 2009).

Although the apprenticeship model can be very beneficial for pre-service teachers at the

practicum, it is not enough to provide them with all the necessary experience (Bailey, 2006) . If a SLTE program were formulated using only a craft model, pre-service teachers would have very limited opportunities to receive scientific knowledge and research based theories. Pre-service teachers' learning would be passive and would depend most on imitation. This model does not encourage a change of teaching practices, but an accommodating attitude is required to imitate the teacher mentor's doing (Randall & Thornton, 2001).

The applied science model

The applied science model or theory and practice model (see 2nd row on Table 3.1) has been widely used in SLTE (Barduhn & Johnson, 2009). It is still common to observe programs in which most of the course structure is devoted to the delivery of knowledge so that pre-service teachers become experts in the field and by default it is assumed they can teach it. This view is especially given in EFL contexts in which the acquisition of the English language and applied linguistics become the subjects to master. This model emphasises the relevance of updated theories in the field providing prospective teachers with opportunities to acquire the knowledge given (Hayes, 2009).

The applied science model apparently disregards teachers' practical knowledge creating an inseparable divide between theory and practice (Wright, 2010). As pre-service teachers engage in teaching they confront classroom reality and the transfer of theory into practice does not necessarily occur smoothly. Its major drawback is that it has not been able to deliver relevant theoretical and systematic solutions to the various professional dilemmas that the teacher faces in real life classroom situations (Wright, 2010).

The reflective model

In the last two decades, the reflective model has become a dominant paradigm in SLTE and programs worldwide share some variations. The reflective model is based on the assumption that teachers develop professional competence through reflecting on their own practice (Bailey, 1997, 2009). Wallace (1991) who developed his reflective model based on Schön's knowledge in action (1983), presented the model as a cyclical process in which pre-service teachers are involved in reflective practice throughout their teaching experience. Such a cycle aims for continuous improvement and the development of conceptualisations about language teaching. Pre-service teachers already have some knowledge that they acquired as students and during the development of their SLTE program. Once the pre-service teachers have the

opportunity to enter the classroom environment, they discover the actual framework of teaching and become aware of the different classroom situations. The reflective process works as a mediating tool that enables pre-service teachers to tackle teaching problems, evaluate past experiences and take some action.

From this perspective as Richards and Lockhart (1994) strongly emphasised teachers should "collect data about their teaching, examine their attitudes, beliefs, assumptions, and teaching practices, and use the information obtained as a basis for critical reflection about teaching" (p. 1). There is no doubt that a reflective cyclical process in learning to teach is beneficial, however, the reflective process is usually done as a private experience, with a lack of focus on discussion with peers and experts. Another drawback of this model is the lack of scaffolding to pre-service teachers regarding the reflection process, and an emphasis on the individual capacity to reflect on the teaching experiences, evaluate and take action for improvements (Day, 1991).

Table 3.1below summarises the most dominating curriculum models in SLTE in the last 30 years.

Table 3.1: Curriculum models in SLTE

Models Wallace (1991)	Views of teaching (Freeman, 1991)	Learning to teach	Role of the practicum (Mattsson, Eilertsen, & Rorrison, 2011)	Views of pre-service teachers
The craft model (an apprenticeship model)	Teaching as doing	Learning by imitating all the teaching techniques used by the experienced teacher. Knowledge is acquired as a result of observation, instruction, and practice	The practicum is a way to introduce the pre-service teacher into the profession. The pre-service teacher learns the profession from a school teacher	An apprentice is a trainee (pre-service teacher) under the supervision of an expert teacher
The applied science model (a theory to practice model)	Teaching is a science and as such can be examined rationally and objectively (thinking and doing)	Learning to teach is the application of the theory learnt	The practicum is seen as a laboratory. Pre-service teachers learn in a controlled environment with ideal conditions and excellent professionals. They apply what they had learnt at university	Teachers are educated when they become proficient enough to apply these theories in practice Passive role of learners
The reflective model	Teaching as knowing what to do	Teachers learn by reflecting on their own practice	The practicum is a place where student teachers encounter a large number of authentic cases in order to learn how to identify resemblances and distinctive traits. They learn how to interpret and analyse cases in the light of research, theory and experience	Student teachers are decision-makers. They have an active role as teacher learners

The models described above are still in use in SLTE programs internationally. It is rare to see a SLTE program which relies only on one type of these models, the current trends of curricula in EFL contexts seem to use more integrative models in which content and pedagogic knowledge are provided to pre-service teachers. In Chile, as discussed in Chapter 2, the SLTE programs historically have tended to follow an applied science model. As will be explored in detail in Chapter 7, the program studied in this thesis exhibits a hybrid model which comprises elements from the applied science model, the craft model, and the reflective model.

As Day (1991) observed, an integrative model is needed to be able to incorporate the strengths of the applied science, craft and reflective model in which pre-service teachers are not only exposed to different types of knowledge, but they can also engage in actual teaching, reflect on their practices and have expert support. The following section presents two alternative models for SLTE that take distance from the historical dominated models described above.

Towards a model of critical SLTE

In the last decade, as seen in the first section of this chapter, there has been an increasing interest in understanding what teachers do and why they do it (K. E. Johnson, 2009). This has also had an impact on curriculum design, which has looked for alternative ways to bridge the historic divide of theory and practice, and educate future teachers who can be social agents capable to "promote equitable relations of power in different sites of learning and teaching" (Norton, 2005, p. 12). The first alternative model that I will review is the one proposed by Norton (2005), and then I will discuss the most recent critical proposal by Kumaradivelu (2012).

Norton's (2005) model of critical language teacher education was informed by the teaching practices taking place in six sites. The sites were located in China, Canada and the USA in pre-service and in-service teacher contexts. Norton's proposal sought to introduce innovation and a concern for social change in language teacher education. Her proposal lies under the assumption that a teacher education program should help "student teachers relate to their practice from a position of strength rather than weakness, and to utilize diverse resources to effect educational and social change" (Norton, 2005, p. 16). To do so, this author suggests that student teachers need to negotiate different identities, and that the array of identities is constructed through language immersed in different communities of practice.

Norton's critical language teacher education model suggests that a teacher education program should go beyond content and teaching methods. Instead, the focus should be given to the reasons why specific content is taught and how it is taught. Here it is important to consider pre-service teachers' backgrounds, their future goals, and the communities and learners they want to teach. Thus, this model incorporates a wider sociocultural community in which "there is frequently unequal access to power and possibility" (Norton, 2005, p. 17). Consequently, the teacher education program should provide future teachers with a wider range of identity options that would enable teachers to be legitimate members of their communities, and enhance the teaching and learning of a language.

In the same line with Norton's lies Kumaradivelu's (2012) proposal. This author proposes a radical restructure of SLTE which will educate future teachers to be "strategic thinkers, exploratory researchers and transformative intellectuals" (p. x). Thus, this author argues that SLTE should help teachers develop a holistic understanding of classrooms, learners and teaching. This is the underlying assumption of his curricular model based on the integration of the following modules: knowing, analysing, recognising, doing, and seeing. These modules are based on three operating principles: particularity, practicality, and possibility.

Kumaravadivelu's operating principles are the core tenets of his model. The particularity principle refers to "the lived experiences" (Kumaravadivelu, 2012, p. 13) of teachers. Practicality refers to the divide between theory and practice. This principle intends to enable teachers to theorise their practice. The last principle, possibility, is based on Paulo Freire's (1970) critical pedagogy and aims at social transformation rather than knowledge transmission. These principles work in an integrated way with the componential modules. Kumaravadivelu proposes a "cyclical, interactive and integrative" (2013, p. 18) curricular model to educate language teachers in a globalised world who can not only develop their knowledge base, but who can recognise their identities and beliefs, analyse their teaching context, create dialogues with the community, teach accordingly and monitor their own teaching.

Both critical models presented here question the divide between what to teach and how to teach it, and advocate for a critical stance towards the knowledge base and methods of

language teaching and learning. Norton advocates for teacher identity options as a way to enable future teachers to become social agents in their communities. Kumaravadivelu proposes a holistic modular model that offers different possibilities for future teachers to become transformative agents. Whilst the Norton and Kumaravadivelu models propose an original base to design a SLTE curriculum, there is still no research available on how much success these models can have on teachers' learning. These models are relevant to this study as they can provide a framework to introduce curricular innovations in the Chilean context.

The different curricular models presented here offer different possibilities for SLTE to design their programs effectively. The questions of what to teach and how to teach to pre-service teachers are not completely resolved in the models presented above. Thus, I will elaborate on the concept of *knowledge base* in the next section to enquire the existing literature on what prospective EFL teachers should know and how.

3.3 The knowledge base of SLTE

The knowledge base of SLTE has been in dispute in the last 30 years. However in the EFL contexts the knowledge base of teachers has been historically dominated by language learning. In Asia and South America in which English is learnt as a FL driven by economic or communicative purposes, language acquisition is a priority in the formation of future teachers of English (Matear, 2008). In this setting, the challenge for curriculum designers seems to be bigger and more complex. How can the curriculum provide opportunities to pre-service teachers to appropriate pedagogic content knowledge and to master the language proficiently at the same time? In EFL contexts, pre-service teachers are learners of not only teaching English, but of the English language as well (Abrahams & Farías, 2009). This is also the case of the participants of this study.

Is language acquisition the core of SLTE knowledge base?

One study that exemplifies how language learning becomes the most important knowledge for language teachers is the one undertaken by Sakamoto (2004). This author studied how pre-service teachers developed their personal and professional identity in Japan. Sakamoto used social learning theory (Wenger, 1998) to explore how 28 pre-service teachers learnt during university coursework and their practicum. This study demonstrated that the coursework provided pre-service teachers with language teaching methodologies and learning theories. In the practicum, they engaged in different activities as members of the school community and

developed their professional identity. The study showed that pre-service teachers made efforts in improving their English as they considered this the most important characteristic of being a teacher of English. Thus, the teacher identity they were constructing was closely related to how proficient they were in the language (Sakamoto, 2004). Sakamoto's findings resonate with my study as some participants were also driven by language acquisition. This will be explored in detail in Chapters 7 and 8.

Not only pre-service teachers see English as the core knowledge of a teacher of English, but the broader context such as the SLTE program and the national curriculum. Ahn's study (2011), for example, examined how a group of Korean pre-service teachers implemented a communicative approach in their teaching as part of the new reform. Her results pointed to the difficulties these teachers had to use English in the classroom, not because of the level of their English, but because of "contextual constraints related to the practicum and the socialization patterns of pupils in school" (p. 253).

Although there is a clear need for prospective EFL teachers to learn the foreign language and about the language that is not enough. As argued in this chapter, the knowledge base of SLTE is a complex collection of types of knowledge that comprise other dimensions than just an isolated set of skills or the mastery of a foreign language. The next subsection elaborates on a constructivist view of teachers' learning and deals with the knowledge base of SLTE as a social co-construction.

Implication of a constructivist view of learning on SLTE knowledge base

Shulman's proposal (1987) of knowledge base for language teachers had an important implication on SLTE curriculum design as it provides a complex framework of what the knowledge base of language teaching is. Shulman's proposal of the knowledge base as a complex array of different types of knowledge is supported by the underlying assumption of teachers as "active mediators of knowledge and constructors of new knowledge" (Hüttner, 2012, p. 3). Teachers are not just applying theory into practice, but they are theorising their practice. As Hüttner (2012) observed, Shulman's constructivist view of teacher learning gave support to research into teacher learning not as a cognitive development, but as a social construction.

Shulman's proposal (1987) went beyond the subject matter knowledge and the pedagogical component addressing the gap between theory and practice in an innovative way (Richards, 2008). Shulman's model is made up of the following six categories: content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, curriculum knowledge, knowledge of the learner, and knowledge of educational goals and their philosophical bases. Content knowledge has to do with being knowledgeable about subject matter. In the context of EFL teaching, content knowledge is what teachers teach, that is, English. General pedagogical knowledge is explained as the general set of methodologies and strategies that the teacher needs to know in order to carry out the teaching activity. Pedagogical content knowledge, refers to the knowledge of what language is teachable and how it can be represented to learners (Golombek, 1998). Curricular knowledge is described as the teachers' acquaintance of the curricular program of the school and how they make use of it to favour their students' teaching learning processes. The two last components of Shulman's model include the teachers' engagement with the students' processes and their acquaintance to the educational system principles and social expectations expected from them.

Shulman's model of knowledge base provided a sound framework to reveal the complexity of teachers' knowledge base. As a consequence, the model of applied science seems discredited (Wright, 2010), and the idea of learning to teach as a socially constructed activity has gained more credibility.

Teachers' learning as a socially constructed activity

The constructivist perspective on teachers' learning set the foundations for a view of learning as a socially constructed activity. Freeman and Johnson (1998) proposed that how teachers learn to teach should be seen as the activity of learning to teach. They defined learning to teach as "a long-term, complex, developmental process, that operates through participation in the social practices and contexts associated with learning and teaching" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 402). This implied a reconceptualisation of the knowledge base of SLTE. They proposed three domains for the knowledge base of language teaching: 1) the teacher as a learner, 2) social contexts, and 3) the pedagogical process. The teacher as a learner domain refers to seeing the teacher as a learner of language teaching, and not of a language. The social domain refers to the necessary socialisation that teachers need to go through at the schools, and the pedagogical domain refers to the teaching and learning of a language process. These domains are part of a complex system of knowledge base in which the domains are in

constant interdependence. This view contrasted the binary distinction between the subject matter and teaching and the historic divide between theory and practice.

Freeman and Johnson's reconceptualisation of SLTE contributed to examining and rethinking what was being taught and how it was taught through SLTE programs. The three domains outlined above challenge SLTE curriculum as a competence with a set of skills and knowledge. Thus, from a sociocultural perspective knowledge base is understood as:

> normative and lifelong, as emerging out of and through experiences in social contexts: as learners in classrooms and schools, as participants in professional teacher education programs, and later as teachers in the settings where they work (K. E. Johnson, 2006, p. 239).

As seen in this chapter, it is accepted that both the teacher education program and student teachers' previous life experiences become sources of their knowledge base (Wright, 2010). The study by Da Silva (2005) in Brazil evidenced that the studied pre-service teachers' perceptions originated from theoretical knowledge and experiential knowledge. The author argued that the studied pre-service teachers built up on their apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975) and the memories of their lived experiences. Pre-service teachers' perceptions mediated their knowledge and allowed them to interpret and understand their teaching as filters through which the theoretical knowledge was viewed, as a source of teachers' knowledge, and also as triggers of conflicts and dilemmas as well. These important findings make it apparent to explore the impact of what teachers think and believe about language teaching in their actual teaching, in other words, teachers' beliefs which will be examined in detail in the next section.

In this section, I built on what prospective teachers of English should know to teach EFL and how they should learn it. The literature reviewed revealed that not only knowledge about language or about language teaching is enough to learn to teach EFL. As I outlined in the previous paragraph, it seems that teachers' beliefs mediate how teachers' construct their knowledge about language teaching. The next section explores on relevant research on teachers' beliefs and their impact on learning to teach EFL.

3.4 Teachers' beliefs

In SLTE there has been an emerging body research on teacher cognition that has contributed to the understanding of what teachers think and believe. According to Borg (2003) teacher *cognition* refers to "the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching - what teachers know, believe, and think" (S. Borg, 2003, p. 81). The term *cognition* has dominated the research literature on teachers' beliefs in both pre-service and in-service contexts, and EFL and ESL settings as well. However, as this thesis is framed under a socio-cultural approach rather than an individual psychology of the mind, I have decided to use the term *teachers' beliefs* in this section. It is important to note here that I argue that teachers' beliefs are constructed socially and in the activity of learning. A common consent in the present literature is that teachers' belief system comprises their attitudes, assumptions, beliefs, knowledge, and how this belief system influences their teaching behaviour (S. Borg, 2003, 2006b; Flores & Day, 2006; Phipps & Borg, 2007).

Studies on teacher beliefs in the EFL pre-service context have worked mainly in two distinct areas: studies dealing with the description and classification of pre-service teachers' beliefs and alternatively, studies exploring the development and change of beliefs throughout teacher education programs. These studies have tackled important issues about pre-service teachers: the influence of prior language learning experience, pre-service teachers' beliefs about language teaching, views on practicum experiences and instructional decision making and practical knowledge (S. Borg, 2006b).

Origin of teachers' beliefs

One of the main findings of Borg's work (2006b) has been the identification of three main sources of teachers' beliefs. He suggests that they originate from: a) previous experience as learners, b) professional training, and c) classroom practice. As Lortie (1975) in her illuminating work observed, teachers before they enter into teaching have observed and experienced what teachers do, the school routine and the teachers' work setting. These experiences have provided prospective teachers with an idea of what teaching is or is not. Lortie used the term *apprenticeship of observation* to explain this phenomenon. This author argued that the base of teachers' knowledge is "intuitive and imitative" (p. 62) and that it is based on personal theories, rather than on pedagogical sound foundations.

Johnson's study (1994) of ESL pre-service teachers' beliefs in USA demonstrated the apparent impact from prior experiences as language students on future teachers. In this study, pre-service teachers' experiences especially influenced their views towards their own images as teachers. Furthermore, Johnson (1994) strongly argues that "teachers' beliefs are inextricably complex, grounded in emotionally laden episodic memories from prior experiences, relatively stable and resistant to change, yet instrumental in shaping how teachers interpret what goes on in their classroom and how they will react and respond to it" (p. 5).

Although, there is no doubt that the apprenticeship of observation is one factor that shapes prospective teachers' learning, this is only one of a complex network of factors. Not only does the previous experience as students at school shape teachers' beliefs, but also informal personal experiences and social background. For example, the study of Michaela Borg (2005) confirmed that interest in subject knowledge has been motivated by personal life histories, and sociocultural background. Her case study of a pre-service teacher indicated that the prospective teacher's beliefs studied were not only influenced by her observation of apprenticeship, but also by her previous job as a secretary.

In the case of prior language learning experience, it seems that this prior knowledge forms the basis of teachers' first conceptualisations of learning a foreign language (S. Borg, 2006a). Studies undertaken by Johnson (1992; 1994; 2006) and Numrich (1996) revealed that student teachers based their practicum performance on their own experience of learning a second language. This claim suggests that teacher education programs should discover the prior knowledge experiences these student teachers bring so as to deal with them from the very first moment. In the study reported in this thesis as will be seen later, pre-service teachers' prior experiences of language learning were not necessarily positive nor aligned with the teacher education program's views.

In relation to pre-service teachers' beliefs about language teaching, the literature suggests that at the beginning of the education programs students may hold beliefs which can be inappropriate, unrealistic, naïve and ideal about teaching and learning (S. Borg, 2006a). Prospective teachers might also have erroneous beliefs such as the case reported by Brown and McGannon (1998) in which student teachers held the beliefs that you learn a language by imitation and that language errors are just the result of mother tongue interference. In this

study, I do not consider pre-service teachers' beliefs at the beginning of the program as erroneous or inappropriate, but just as the result of a complex social construction based on their previous experiences as school students. Consequently, the SLTE program has the challenge not only to change pre-service teachers' beliefs, but to provide opportunities that allow them to become legitimate teachers of English in their classrooms. The following section discusses some of the impacts of the SLTE programs on teachers' beliefs. Here it is important to note that there is an overlap between teachers' beliefs and their knowledge base. This is not a problem, but another way to reveal the complexity of how knowledge is constructed, shaped and appropriated.

Impact of teacher education program on changing prior teachers' beliefs

Studies that have explored the impact of teacher education programs on pre-service teachers' learning and beliefs show a range of findings and evidence is mixed (S. Borg, 2011). Some authors, such as Kagan (1992), concluded that teacher education had a limited impact on pre-service teachers' prior beliefs. Conversely, some other studies have demonstrated that teacher education programs can have greater impact on teachers' beliefs and knowledge base (K. E. Johnson, 2009). Here it is important to consider that it is very difficult to generalise about the impact of teacher education programs on pre-service teachers' beliefs and knowledge as many contextual factors can differ from one program to the other one. This is especially relevant when considering EFL versus ESL contexts. It is also necessary to point out that overall studies show some type of change in one or both: beliefs and instructional practices. However, it is difficult to compare results and make generalisations since the evidence of change has used different formats: responses to questionnaires, interviews, journal entries, and classroom practice (S. Borg, 2011). Despite the limitations, it seems that teacher education programs have the potentiality to engage pre-service teachers to become professional EFL teachers and contribute to make their learning experiences meaningful and transformative.

The research undertaken by Mattheoudakis (2007) suggests that pre-service teachers change their beliefs gradually and in some cases significantly during the teacher education program. This author undertook a longitudinal study looking at changes in beliefs during a three-year teacher education program. The results of this study revealed that, for example, in the case of beliefs about the focus of the lesson, at the beginning of the program, most of the pre-service

teachers showed a preference towards grammar as the primary focus of the English lesson, conversely at the end of the program, they disagreed with this.

The study of Busch (2010) also suggests that pre-service teachers' beliefs evolve within the teacher education program. This study reveals that pre-service teachers changed their beliefs in several areas regarding language acquisition, the importance of grammar, and the efficacy of audio-lingual learning strategies. The beliefs that changed the most were those related to the complexities of learning a foreign language and the role of different factors, such as grammar, culture, and vocabulary, in the learning process. Conversely, the study of Peacock (2001) did not reveal major changes by the end of the teacher education program on pre-service teachers' beliefs. This author argued that pre-service teachers usually start their education with views about language teaching as a process of knowledge transmission and could change throughout time to a view in which teaching is seen as a facilitating process of the beliefs. Peacock suggests that training can potentially change pre-service teachers' misconceptions if they are confronted early in the program (Peacock, 2001). Peacock's argument resonates with the study reported in this thesis as Chilean pre-service teachers' previous experiences as language learners were characterised as passive learners in which memorisation and rote learning was privileged.

Some other studies like Johnson's (1994) and Gutierrez-Almarza's (1996) suggest that courses from the teacher education program can have different influences on teachers' learning. In Johnson's study the participants evaluated how appropriate the second language theories were taught in the light of their prior experience as language learners and or their classroom experience as teachers. Johnson's study demonstrated that the teacher education program has little effect on changing their views about teaching. Whereas, Gutierrez-Almarza's study demonstrated that the language teaching methods course had a great impact on teachers' learning transforming the participants pre-conceptions about language teaching. A more recent longitudinal study by Malderez and Wedell (2007) in the UK explored the motivations, pre-conceptions and expectations of teaching and learning of a large number of pre-service teachers following a one year initial training program. Their findings in relation to the relevance of the education program suggested that teacher education programs need to construct and provide opportunities for pre-service teachers to find their voice as teachers. This implies reflective practice towards the process of becoming a teacher. The authors also

emphasised the role of the structure of teacher education programs advocating for theoretical understandings based on practical teaching experiences.

So far, I have presented evidence on how prior learning experiences and courses in the teacher education programs impact as affordances and constraints on the development of concepts about language teaching, and also pre-service teachers' views of teaching. Another main factor that shapes how teachers learn is the actual experience of teaching. This experience is usually partly integrated to the SLTE program through school-based experiences. As will be explored below, school-based experiences are crucial to how teachers learn to teach. Together with an appropriate course structure, the program's pedagogies, the relationships between the participants and the affective conditions, school-based experiences can be affordances or constraints in the experience of learning to be a teacher (Wright, 2010). This is the reason why I review the role of school-based experiences in the curriculum of SLTE in the next section.

3.5 School-based experiences in the curriculum of SLTE

As seen in the previous accounts, the settings where teachers learn to teach are apparent: the university and the schools. This has direct implications on the curriculum of SLTE since knowledge base and teaching learning experiences must take into account the social, political, economic and cultural histories that are located in the contexts where teachers learn and teach (K. E. Johnson, 2009). This understanding gives a different role to school-based experiences, not as the place where teachers put into practice what they learnt, but as one of the settings in which teachers construct their knowledge participating and engaging in the school community (Bailey, 2009). This means that teachers' learning occurs in different institutions assuming different roles and interacting with a community. Therefore, the knowledge base of SLTE is not a fixed set of knowledge, skills and understanding, but an evolving one for each teacher (Graves, 2009). Teachers at different stages in their careers may have very different learning needs in different contexts (Tarone & Allwright, 2005).

The curriculum of SLTE includes school-based experiences ranging from observation to actual teaching. It is widely accepted that teachers need to learn to teach as they become aware of the multiplicity of factors that create the conditions of learning in a classroom. Thus, teacher education programs have seen the need to focus on the activity of teaching and on the

contexts in which it is done. As Breen (1985) pointed out, classrooms define the very nature of teaching and learning.

Table 3.2 below summarises the most common types of school-based experiences found in SLTE programmes and the underlying learning principles.

Table 3.2: Types of school-based experiences[6]

School-based experience	Characteristics	Principle on learning
Indirect classroom based learning	Different types of activities at the schools: researching documents from the classroom, studying teachers' reports, critical incidents, exploring task-based learning experience, experiencing teacher educators as teaching models, and microteaching	[7] Experiential learning; [8] Experimental learning
Direct classroom based learning environment	Teaching is the core of the practicum, and teachers get engaged in teaching practices at a school. This can also include action research projects	[9] Research approach; Experiential and experimental learning

School-based experiences are integrated in the course structure of the teacher education programs in different ways. It seems that how school-based experiences are integrated in the SLTE education programs is still an unresolved issue. Its organisation is difficult as it includes different boundary crossings between schools and university programs, together with different views of learning and teaching. Notwithstanding the difficulties of implementation, the integration of school-based experiences into SLTE is seen as crucial for teachers' learning. In the literature of SLTE, we can find two main scenarios for the integration of school-based experiences in SLTE programs. These scenarios would be adopted according to the SLTE program principles on learning and the specific contextual needs of the program and the cooperating school (Legutke, 2012).

[6] Adapted from Legutke and Schocker-v. Ditfurth (2009)

[7] Pre-service teachers experience the very processes that they are supposed to initiate with students in their future classrooms

[8] Pre-service teachers develop an experimental attitude to practice, and the ability to identify and define problems and to tackle them as a characteristic of the expert teacher.

[9] Pre-service teachers learn to construct a research approach to second language learning. Pre-service teachers integrate: relevant theoretical background, pre-service teachers' own theories on language learning and the perspective of the practical context.

The practicum

Traditionally, the most important school-based experience in the teacher education programs has been the practicum. As shown in Table 3.2, the practicum sits on the direct classroom based learning environment type of school-based experience (Bailey, 2006; Legutke & Schocker-v. Ditfurth, 2009). From a sociocultural perspective, teacher learning can be interpreted as the trajectory of student teachers from peripheral to central participators in communities where knowledge is used and developed, mediated through the cultures and artefacts of the practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Therefore, the practicum is an initial opportunity for teachers to engage in social practices, shape their actions and views of teaching and in turn shape these practices as well (Mattsson, et al., 2011). Pre-service teachers participate in the activities of the school and perform as teachers. In that environment, student teachers start as marginal members of the community and with support and adequate tools, the student teachers become full members of the community as teachers. It is not a process that happens overnight, but a development that happens over a lifetime as a teacher (Mattsson, et al., 2011).

The view of the practicum as teachers' development and not as training (Gebhard, 2009) has implications on the knowledge base of prospective teachers. As it is a tool to learn to teach and not a goal-end product knowledge and skills learnt at university are not simply transferred into the school context (Bailey, 2006), the practicum offers an opportunity for teachers to learn how they can make their own informed teaching decisions, as well as to reflect and explore on their own teaching practices in a specific context. It becomes apparent that the practicum is a complex activity with multi-layers which involves different participants, actions, and settings. As the experience is context bound, it is very likely that it varies from teacher to teacher, and different goals would be met partially or in different degrees (Gebhard, 2009).

As seen earlier, teacher education programs have followed different models for the integration of the practicum in the curriculum. Programs combine the models in different ways according to their specific contexts. It seems that there is not a single answer to where or how to organise the practicum, but multiple complex possibilities. It also seems that the practicum is left to chance. As Rorrison (2008) observes:

> ...there is a need to ensure that the practicum is a valuable professional learning experience. My recent research indicates that practicum learning

> is currently often left to chance and many learning opportunities are wasted. It seems evident that the practicum is often a time of tension, frustration, misinformation, confrontation, acquiescence and poor communication (p.10).

In the studied Chilean program, the practicum follows a hybrid model which has incorporated elements from the applied science model, communities of practice and the master-apprentice model. As discussed in Chapter 2, in Chile there is no centralised supported system for the practicum. Therefore, pre-service teachers' placement at the schools is usually random without a systematic collaborative work between schools and universities. This will be clearly explored in Chapter 7.

The next subsection examines studies that have explored how pre-service teachers used and appropriated pedagogic knowledge in the school context. This is relevant to this study as it provides a framework to understand the historic divide of theory vs. practice in teachers' learning. One section of Chapter 7 will be devoted to reveal how the participants appropriated knowledge.

Practicum as a way to appropriate theoretical and practical tools

Findings from Grossman et al. (2000), and Newell, Gingrich, and Beumer Johnson (2001) have suggested that the practicum is a powerful setting that can shape the ways in which pre-service teachers appropriate pedagogic knowledge. This implies that the dissonance between the school and teacher education program would be beneficial as the nature of the practicum setting is different. It offers new possibilities for pre-service teachers to use different pedagogical tools, and construct their views of teaching. Even more, as Grossman et al. (1999) point out, over time pedagogical tools learnt during the practicum can provide a sound framework for individual views of teaching and possible teaching skills.

The studies of Golombek (1998) and Numrich (1996) demonstrated how the practicum contributed to shape pre-service teachers' pedagogical knowledge. Golombek (1998) examined the characteristics of personal practical knowledge and how it informed the practice of two pre-service ESL teachers. Personal practical knowledge encompasses dimensions such as knowledge of the self, knowledge of subject matter, knowledge of instruction, and knowledge of context. Golombek found that participants' personal practical knowledge served

as an interpretive framework for making sense of their classroom practices. Numrich (1996) analysed the diaries of 26 ESL novice teachers and found that their most important initial concern was establishing a comfortable classroom atmosphere and a good class management routine. Analysis of the participant's diaries also revealed their perceptions about effective teaching and their sources of frustration. Skills such as managing class time, giving clear directions, meeting students' needs, and focusing on students rather than on the self were found to be the most difficult to acquire. Numrich's findings (1996) resonate with this study as participants reported teaching skills as the most prominent learning during their practicum. I will discuss this in detail in Chapter 8.

Though the practicum is a crucial experience for future teachers, it can also be daunting. Franzak (2002) for example, recognised that "the practicum experience is often stressful for pre-service teachers because they encounter dissonance between their preconceived views of teacher and what they observe in the field" (p. 260). Pre-service teachers have to find a balance between their conceptualisations, the teacher education program, and the school. In some cases, the dissonance has been perceived as reality shock by pre-service teachers (Bailey, 2009). This makes an apparent need for more practical, meaningful, and coherent experiences provided by the teacher education program in collaboration with the schools (Grossman, et al., 1999). This is crucial in this study as some participants reported how unsettling the teaching practicum experience was, and these participants lived through the divide between the school and the university.

The study of Grossman et al. (1999) offers a sound framework to analyse how teachers appropriate theoretical and practical pedagogical tools. Here these authors refer to appropriation as "the process through which a person adopts the pedagogical tools available for use in particular social environment and through this process internalises ways of thinking endemic to specific cultural practices" (p. 15). This means that pre-service teachers reconstruct the knowledge they are internalising, thus transforming both their conception of the knowledge and, in turn, that knowledge as it is construed and used by others.

Grossman et al. (1999) proposed five degrees of appropriation. The first level corresponds to the lack of appropriation. These authors explain the lack of appropriation because of different factors such as: concepts being too difficult, no previous knowledge, and resistance because of a cultural mismatch. The second level of appropriation corresponds to appropriating a label. This level refers to the most superficial stage of appropriation when a pre-service

teacher knows only the name, but knows none of its characteristics. The next level is appropriating surface features which can be seen when a pre-service teacher knows the characteristic of a tool, but still does not understand its implications. Appropriating conceptual underpinnings is a higher level of appropriation which is reflected when someone understands the theoretical basis of the nature of a tool. The highest level of appropriation was called achieving mastery. This level is reflected when pre-service teachers not only know the conceptual underpinnings, but are also able to implement them. Grossman et al's study demonstrated how the settings can shape the levels of appropriation.

Furthermore, Newell, Gingrich and Johnson (2001) explored why and how pre-service teachers' thinking and practices were influenced differently by the diverse activity settings provided by their cooperating schools and teachers during the practicum. These authors used the levels of appropriation proposed by Grossman et al. (1999) as a base and proposed other similar labels according to their own data. Their findings suggested that when activity settings from the university teacher education program were closely aligned with the activity settings provided by the cooperating school, the participants were more likely to appropriate the university-provided tools. I adapted Newell et al's modes of appropriation as a base to understand how the studied pre-service teachers appropriated different tools from the SLTE program. I used Newell et al's labels as they fit the analysis of the data. These findings agree with Farrell's (2001) suggestion that although the practicum is very important for the socialisation process, how the school responds and supports the novice teachers play a crucial role in pre-service teachers' future career. This will be explored in detail in Chapter 8.

As shown in this section, the practicum is a central part of learning to teach as it contributes to cross boundaries between school and university, providing ongoing support for the participation in communities of practice, and encouraging reflection and a critical perspective on teachers' own teaching practice in both school and university (Bailey, 2006; Legutke & Schocker-v. Ditfurth, 2009; Wenger, 1998). As Legutke (2012) strongly observes "unless teachers explore and become aware of how they learn, they will continue to teach as they were taught, not as they were taught to teach" (p. 10). This assertion implies that the experience of the practicum is not enough to learn to teach, but it is absolutely necessary to provide the formal opportunities to critically examine and reflect on the teaching practices and co-construct a teacher identity. Thus, the practicum experience can be either an affordance or

a constraint in the activity of learning to teach EFL and its effective integration in the curriculum together with the context will shape the impact of the experience on pre-service teachers.

The next section discusses teachers' identity and how it is co-constructed as part of learning to be a teacher. As discussed before, pre-service teachers start negotiating their identity as teachers in the school-based experiences. Thus, examining teacher identity and how it is constructed is vital to understand how teachers learn to teach EFL as it reveals how teachers see themselves as part of a community, and how the other members of the community see them.

3.6 Teacher identity

Identity and language learning together with teacher identity has been extensively researched in the last 20 years. One of the most cited authors in this field is Bonny Norton. This author has explored identity "to reference how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is structured across time and space, and how a person understands possibilities for the future" (Norton, 2000, p. 5). This implies that identity is "socially constructed and reflects the social, historical and political context of an individual's lived experiences" (Hall, 2002, p. 31). According to a sociocultural perspective, our identity comprises our engagement in a variety of social groups into which we are born, e.g., gender, class, ethnicity and race, in addition to group memberships that we appropriate through activities related to social institutions such as family, school and workplace. Associated with the various group memberships are values, beliefs and attitudes, which in part define our communicative activities. While our identities are shaped by our group memberships, we are also able to shape our identities through our agency, i.e. our actions and activities. Thus, there is a dialectical relationship between identity and agency (Roth et al., 2004). Using Gee's own words: "It's not just what you say or even how you say it, it is who you are and what you are doing while you say it" (Gee, 1996, p. xv).

I understand identity as "a process of continual, emerging and becoming" (Miller, 2009, p. 173) highlighting that teachers' identity cannot be separated from social practices and contextual factors. This emphasis takes distance from a cognitive view in which identity is considered a more fixed, unitary internal phenomenon. This is clearly illustrated in Varghese, Morgan, Johnston and Johnson's study (Varghese, et al., 2005) who have provided an

illuminative framework on teacher identity considering elements from social identity theory, situated learning and the notion of image-text. Their analysis of three different studies made them conclude that:

> ...teacher identity is a profoundly individual and psychological matter because it concerns the self-image and other-image of particular teachers. It is a social matter because the formation, negotiation, and growth of teacher identity is a fundamentally social process taking place in institutional settings such as teacher education programs and schools. It is a process that is inextricably intertwined with language and discourse (p. 39).

This implies that teacher identity needs to consider three crucial elements: that teachers' agency plays an important role in identity formation; that identity is context bound, and that identity is formed and negotiated through language and discourse. I agree with Varghese et al. (2005) in these three points. However, as will be seen in Chapter 8 teacher identity is part of the activity of learning to teach EFL. Teacher identity is revealed through pre-service teachers' constant negotiation of learning who they are as teachers and how they are seen in different contexts.

The next subsection elaborates on one key factor that has been identified by the literature to shape language teachers' identity: being a non-native speaker.

The identity of a non-native teacher

In SLTE the dichotomy of the native/non-native teacher has been contested in the last few years extensively (Miller, 2009). Studies of non-native teachers of English have shown how non-native teachers still suffer from discrimination and marginalisation. The identity of a non-native teacher is conflicting and evolving and being a non-native speaker of English can shape who the teacher is and how he or she is positioned by others (K. A. Johnson, 2003). A second language teacher works within a given institution, which is part of a larger set of social institutions (e.g. specific country, specific national curriculum), but is simultaneously grappling with diverse cultural practices in her/his classroom (ways of talking, interacting, reading, and writing). In this context, both macro-level and micro-level analysis is needed to understand teacher's practice. Even more, a second language teacher who is teaching in a

language other than her native language faces a different set of challenges such as lack of professional confidence as the language itself is identified as the expertise rather than language teaching

The study of Beckett and Stiefvater (2009) suggested that there is a tendency for non-native English-speaking teachers to see themselves as not able to teach colloquial English as they do not have a an advanced sociolinguistic competence. This confirms the issue of proficiency in the English language as one of the key characteristics of a good language teacher, discussed earlier in the chapter. Lee's study (2010), for example, illustrated how English language was considered the most important characteristic of a good teacher of English in Japan. This author argued that language proficiency influences professional image and undermines teachers' confidence (Kamhi-Stein, 2009). In the case of Chile, proficiency in English has also been an issue in SLTE. As discussed in Chapter 2, teacher education programs historically have emphasised on the acquisition of English in their curricula. Furthermore, there has been an understanding that to be a teacher of English, it is necessary to master English at a native like proficiency level, and that R.P[10] English is the best accent for a non-native speaker teacher of English. Currently, in Chile, the English standard variety is still preferred in the teacher education programs. It is also important to note that English proficiency is one of the few standards that teachers of English are expected to fulfil.

As I stated above the construction of a teacher identity occurs in institutional settings such as teacher education programs and schools. It is a process that is inherent to learning to teach as a collective activity. This will be detailed in this last part of the chapter.

Teacher identity as learning to be a teacher

One strong tendency in research on identity is the sociocultural view of learning to teach as "learning to think like a teacher, learning to know like a teacher, learning to feel like a teacher and learning to act like a teacher" (Feiman-Nemser, 2008, p. 698). This view implies that learning to teach goes beyond learning how to teach, but learning to be a teacher (Akkerman & Meijer, 2011). Therefore, the formation of teacher identity is crucial in the activity of learning to teach. Teacher identity is formed as teachers learn to teach. Thus, learning is

[10] R.P. stands for Received Pronunciation. It is "the standard accent of English as spoken in the south of England" (Pearsall, 1999, p. xiv)

understood as an identification process as proposed by Lave and Wenger (1991). Teachers learn to teach as they participate and increasingly become active participants and members of the community. Using Lave and Wenger's words, learning is "a process of coming to be—of forging identities in activities in the world" (p. 3). Thus, I will discuss below how SLTE programs and schools shape the construction of teachers' identity.

Impact of SLTE programs and schools on the construction of teachers' identity

Some studies have demonstrated that teacher education programs contribute to the construction of a language teacher identity. This is the case of Clarke's study (2008) which looked at the construction and development of teacher identity of a cohort of pre-service teachers in the United Arab Emirates. This study suggests that the teacher education program has a key role in pre-service teachers' learning. Pre-service teachers changed their pre-conceptions about teaching as they participated in the university community. This study highlighted how the teacher education program became an opportunity for future teachers to exercise their agency and learn to teach as a becoming process. This study argued that the teacher education program had a direct impact not only on changing pre-service teachers' beliefs but also contributed directly to the construction of teachers' knowledge base.

Richards, Ho and Giblin's study (1996) suggested that teacher education programs made teachers familiar with the discourse of teaching and developed a deeper knowledge of the target language. Richards et al. (1996) indicated that at the end of the program, pre-service teachers had appropriated a second language jargon such as accuracy, eliciting feedback, fluency, intonation, stress, and target language, and they were able to use the terms accurately and spontaneously. This finding confirmed what Freeman (1993) had illustrated before with the existing literature. This author stated that pre-service teachers were able to use the newly acquired professional discourse to mediate their experiences and construct their own ways of knowing, one that at times was not aligned with the curriculum of the teacher education program. In EFL contexts, such as Chile, the SLTE program contributes mostly to the knowledge about the target language and professional discourse. This will be further elaborated in the next subsection and illustrated in Chapter 7.

Another illuminating study undertaken in Hong Kong by Cheng, Chan, Tang, and Cheng (2009) studied the impact of the teacher education program on a final year pre-service

teachers' cohort. These authors found that most of the participants reported an inclination towards constructivism and reflective thinking. Cheng et al. (2009) related this preference to the potential influence of the teacher education program. Furthermore, pre-service teachers were keen to make changes at school during their practicum, but the implementation of constructivist teaching strategies was impeded by the school constraints. As a result, these authors advocated for more opportunities for reflective practice and a closer relationship between the school and university. Cheng et al.'s study demonstrates that the school setting brings up questions regarding the theoretical underpinnings provided at the teacher education program. The dissonance can be overcome with opportunities for reflexive practice and a stronger and closer partnership between the schools and university. This will be clearly seen in this study in Chapters 8 and 9.

Conversely to Cheng et al.'s position, Singh and Richards' study (2006) argues to look at the university classroom more predominantly as a setting where teachers learn to become teachers. These authors from a sociocultural perspective advocate for making the classroom setting a more "developmentally–rather than training-oriented" scenario (p. 152). This implies that the teacher education programs have the challenge of shaping teachers' identity in the context of the classroom. Singh and Richards emphasise the idea that identity is socially "woven through the ideologies, discourses, contents and approaches of the course, and the individual teacher's own desire to find meaning in becoming a teacher" (p. 152). Even more, these authors suggest that the learning experiences of pre-service teachers in the programs are crucial to understand teacher development.

Singh and Richards (2006) made the point of the relevance of an appropriate pedagogy of teacher development in the classroom. These authors argue that the classroom is not just a place where pre-service teachers receive knowledge but where they participate and experiment with new identities, whereby the classroom can become a place where teachers construct theory and question and reflect on language teaching and learning assumptions. Moreover, these authors advocate for a pedagogy that allows future teachers to experience the theoretical constructs being transferred at the program. In this way, pre-service teachers would be able to appropriate new language methodologies and teaching practices more effectively as they had learnt them as part of their own learning experiences. I agree with these authors, that it would be ideal that the programs work on their pedagogy so as to

increase the chances of impact on teachers' learning and make it an affordance in the learning process.

As discussed earlier, teacher identity is formed not only from a self-image and the knowledge teachers have about teaching, but also about how others position teachers. Varghese (2005) established that identity occurs in practice, understanding that "practice is a social process taking place in institutional settings such as teacher education programs and school" (p. 39). Therefore aspects such as non-native teachers, student-teacher relations and the professional status of teaching should be considered when exploring teacher identity. As Smagorinsky et al. (2004, p. 21) observe: "one's identity... is not simply the emergence of internal traits and dispositions but their development through engagement with others in cultural practice". This implies that the teacher's culture in general, and the school culture in particular have a direct impact on how teachers form and construct their identity as a teacher.

Previous studies indicate that pre-service teacher identity formation is better understood in school-university partnership (Clarke, 2008; Tsui, et al., 2009). Furthermore, it seems that teachers' professional identity formation relies on the interplay between the teachers' own learning experience and their subsequent life as a teacher (Wright, 2010).

The study of Lim (2011) explored the formation of teacher identity of 90 students enrolled in undergraduate and graduate training programs in Korea. This author used mind maps to examine core concepts: backgrounds for career pursuit, conceptualisations of good English teachers/teaching, and confidence/aspirations. The findings of her study confirm Tsui and Law's (2007) results which suggest that teachers' identity formation is a continuous process of identification and negotiation with their prior learning experiences, the knowledge they gained from the curricular in their teacher education programs, and their teaching experiences in real life. Lim's study especially emphasises that for pre-service teachers the experience of the practicum is relevant and that this should be expanded and better integrated in the curriculum of the SLTE programs.

In this section I have argued that teacher identity is a complex phenomenon that is not fixed, that is multiple, shifting, in conflict and in activity. I have outlined that teacher identity is context bound, closely related to social, cultural, and even political links. Teacher identity is constructed, maintained and negotiated in a community through discourse and social practices

and that is inherent to the activity of learning to teach. As Smagorinsky, Cook, Moore, Jackson, and Fry (2004) clearly state:

> Learning to teach is thus in part a process of constructing an identity in the midst of systems of relations. During student teaching, there are multiple systems of relations involved in overlapping, often conflicting activity settings that make this identity formation quite challenging (2004, p. 10).

3.7 Conclusions to the chapter

In this review chapter, I addressed key factors that work as affordances and constraints that shape the activity of learning to teach EFL. This discussion has comprised: the curriculum of SLTE, teachers' beliefs, the impact of the SLTE program on teachers' learning, the role of school-based experiences and teachers' identity. This examination has revealed that both the curriculum of SLTE and school-based experiences shape teachers' learning. While the curriculum can potentially provide opportunities for prospective teachers to gain knowledge and skills to become teachers of English, the school-based experiences can allow them to act as teachers. As seen in the studies presented in the chapter, teachers' beliefs, personal background, and teaching experiences also shape their learning and have an impact on their identity as teachers of English.

The review of studies exploring teachers' identity demonstrates that identity does not emerge from an isolated self-image, but is socially co-constructed. Some of the studies reveal that teacher identity is closely related to the specific socio-cultural context in which participants are immersed. Therefore, prospective teachers' emerging identities are constructed, maintained and negotiated in a community through discourse and social practices.

After reviewing the literature, I can conclude that teacher learning is an activity with affordances and constraints. First, it is situated mainly at two settings: at the schools and at the university. Second, teacher learning is a social activity. This means that participating and interacting in a community shapes teachers' learning. Third, teachers' learning is a mediated activity, i.e. cultural and physical tools (curriculum and school-based experiences) shape teachers' learning. And fourth, teachers' learning is a dialectic process in which pre-service teachers appropriate concepts and practice from their participation, but their actions also shape the activity as a whole. Thus, the research question of this study (how do pre-service

teachers learn to teach EFL in a Chilean program?) has arisen from the issues raised in the literature and my own experience as an English teacher and a teacher educator.

The next chapter presents the theoretical framework of this thesis, CHAT. This chapter discusses the main tenets of CHAT starting with Vygotsky's legacy and underpinnings of what learning to teach is from this perspective. It will also elaborate on the reasons why CHAT is an appropriate lens for the study reported in this thesis.

Chapter 4: A CHAT perspective to learning to teach EFL

4.1 Introduction

Cultural historical activity theory (CHAT) has been used as the framework of this thesis. It provides a sound lens to examine the complexities of how pre-service teachers learn to teach EFL. CHAT is founded on the seminal work of the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). The work of Vygotsky (1978) has contributed to the ongoing scholarly inquiry seeking to understand the relationship between the internal world of human consciousness and the external material world (Wertsch, 1985). Leont'ev and Luria, Vygotsky's students, are central figures in this tradition. The main issue in Vygotsky's theory of mind is that learning and cognition are social and cultural activities that cannot be separated from the tools and signs in use. Tools mediate our actions, and together with speech and actions, tools create meaning in concrete situations (Vygotsky, 1978). The mutual understanding within the culture of our concepts and actions makes it possible for us to talk and interact in meaningful ways (Wertsch, 1985).

From Vygotsky in the 1920s, and later developments, there have been different kinds of interpretations. According to Jahreie (2010) there are two main interpretations that have dominated the sociocultural perspective: one is the dialogical perspective (Bakhtin, 1986; Linell, 1998; Mercer, 1995; Wertsch, 1991) and the other is the cultural historical activity theory (Daniels, 2008; Ellis, et al., 2010; Engeström, 1987; Kaptelinin & Nardi, 2006; Roth & Lee, 2007) .The dialogical perspective has focused research inquiry mainly on the dialogic nature of learning. Although this perspective is based on Vygotsky's understanding of tools as mediators between the human mind and the material world; it is more interested in the analysis of speech as social engagement. Wertsch (1985, 1991) is one exponent researcher that has used Bathkin and Vygotsky's ideas and developed an account of human mental processes that recognises the essential relationship between these processes and their cultural, historical, and institutional settings. Conversely, the cultural historical activity theory perspective asserts that the entire activity system is the unit of analysis including the individuals, tools, and mediated action for analysing the activity system (Engeström, 1987). This implies that CHAT takes "a holistic approach without reducing any pole of a dualism to its corresponding opposite" (Roth & Lee, 2007, p. 218) In this thesis, I adopt a CHAT

perspective of learning as an object oriented activity. This implies that the activity as the unit of analysis allows us to understand how pre-service teachers learn to teach EFL by analysing individual actions in relation to the collective activity they are part of.

This chapter provides a bridge between the conceptual framework and the methodology used in this study. Thus, this chapter is divided into two main parts. In the first part, I will discuss Vygotsky's principles on learning and activity theory will be introduced and described in relation to first, second, and third generations of activity theory. This theoretical discussion is important as activity theory is used in the data analysis of this study. The second part will discuss the use of activity theory as a research tool. This will include an overview of uses of activity theory within educational research, a discussion of the use of activity as the unit of analysis, and methodological implications for this inquiry.

4.2 Learning as an activity: Vygotsky's legacy

Vygotsky's revolutionary theory proposed a new understanding of the learning process which argued that learning is an activity that is mediated by tools situated in a specific social practice (Vygotsky, 1978). From this perspective, he argued that we learn by engaging in social practices using tools which mediate and change our understanding of the world and allow us to change it (Lave, 1988). This view of learning places a fundamental role on social transactions as key to development (Vygotsky, 1987).

The concept of mediation is crucial to Vygotsky's theory. His proposal was revolutionary since his theory incorporated artefacts which split up the Cartesian analysis of the subject against the external world (Engeström, 2001). He proposed that we cannot explain human behaviour without analysing cultural artefacts. Figure 4.1 represents the relations between subject and object mediated by artefacts as proposed by Vygotsky and who argued that these artefacts are culturally constructed and are "devices for mastering mental processes" (Vygotsky, 1981 in Daniels, 2008, p. 7). Examples of artefacts include: "language; various systems of counting, mnemonic techniques; works of art; writing; schemes, diagrams, maps: all sort of conventional signs" (Daniels, 2008, p. 7).

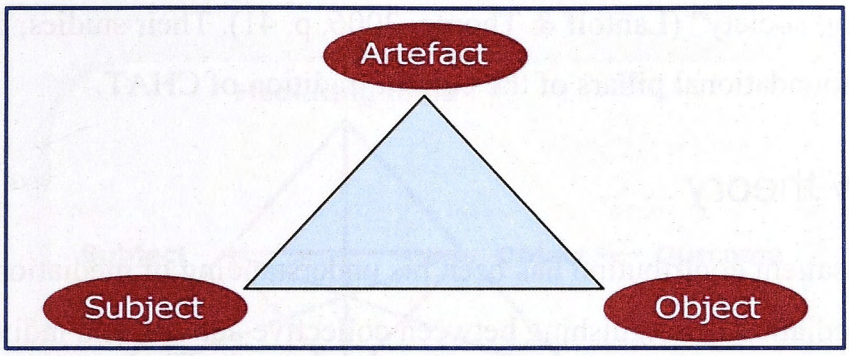

Figure 4.1: The basic triangular representation of mediation adapted[11] from Vygotsky and Research (p.5) by H. Daniels, 2008, London: Routledge.

Another central claim of Vygotsky's theory is the proposal that higher mental functioning in the individual originates from their social life. Vygotsky argued that "all the higher functions originate as actual relations between human individuals" (1978, p. 57). This refers to the notion of internalisation. Vygotsky was concerned primarily with how the child internalises certain features of activities that are social and cultural in nature. Internalisation from a Vygotskian perspective refers to a process which starts interpersonally, first at a social level, between people, and later at the individual level. This means that after a series of developmental events, the interpersonal process is transformed into an intrapersonal one. In Vygotsky's words, psychological development consists in "the transition from direct, innate, natural forms and methods of behaviour to mediated, artificial mental functions that develop in the process of cultural development" (Vygotsky, 1987, p. 168).

Later developments of Vygotskian approaches focus not only on internalisation but also on a developmental cycle that also contains externalisation. Vygotsky approached concept development not only as an ontogenetic transition but also how this development emerges in an institutionally situated activity. This implies that a sociocultural approach to mental functioning should identify historically, culturally, and institutionally situated forms of mediated actions and how their mastery leads to particular forms of meditated action on the intrapersonal plane (Wertsch, 1991).

From Vygotsky's foundational thesis sociocultural theory has been interpreted and developed further. Leont'ev and Luria, Vygotsky's students, continued working under the assumption that "culture is a fundamental constituent of human nature, without in the least minimizing the

[11] Colors and shapes have been changed from the original figure.

role of biology and society" (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 41). Their studies, together with Vygotsky's, are foundational pillars of the current tradition of CHAT.

4.3 Activity theory

Leont'ev's most salient contribution has been his understanding of mediation. He developed the concept of mediation distinguishing between collective activity and individual action (Leont'ev, 1978). Leont'ev expanded Vygotsky's work and developed the foundations for analysing the structure and function of activity. The activity was proposed as the unit of analysis incorporating the concept of division of labour. Leont'ev stated that "only through a relation with other people does man relate to nature itself, which means that labour appears from the very beginning as a process mediated by tools (in the broad sense) and at the same time mediated socially" (Leont'ev, 1981, p. 208). Leont'ev also put an emphasis to the activity as object oriented:

> The basic characteristic of activity is its object orientation. The expression 'non-objective activity' is devoid of sense. Activity may seem to be without object orientation, but scientific investigation of it necessarily requires discovery of its object (Leont'ev, 1981, p. 48).

Leont'ev's development gave origin to activity theory. Leont'ev focused on the collective activity showing the complexities of the interrelations of the individual with the community (Engeström, 2001). The distinction between activity, action and operation became the basis of Leont'ev's three-level model of activity (Hardman, 2007). The uppermost level of collective activity is driven by an object-related motive; the middle level of individual (or group) action is driven by a conscious goal; and the bottom level of automatic operation is driven by the conditions and tools of the action at hand (Lasky, 2005).

Second generation activity theory

Second generation activity theory is primarily based on Leont'ev's research work and developed by Engeström (1987) who extended the activity triangle which is founded on Leont'ev's proposal of activity. This triangular figure is a representation of the structure of human activity (see Figure 4.2 below). The upper level of the activity is driven by an object-related motive; the middle level of individual (or group) action is driven by a conscious goal; and the bottom level of automatic operation is driven by the conditions and tools of the action (Engeström, 1987).

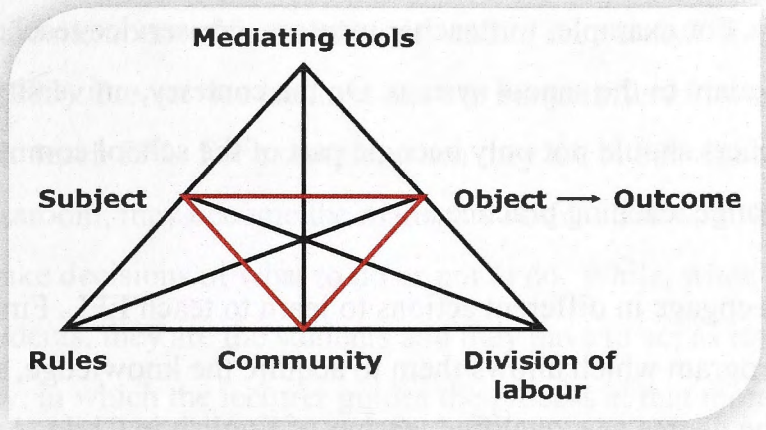

Figure 4.2: An activity system from "*Studying doctoral education: Using Activity Theory to shape methodological tools*", by C.Beauchamp, M.Jazvac-Martek and L. McAlpine, 2009, Innovations in Education and Teaching International, 14(2), p.268.Copyright 2009 by Taylor & Francis. Reprinted by permission of Taylor & Francis (www.tandfonline.com).

Mediation occurs between the various components of the activity system through third parties (Kuutti, 1996). The relationship between community and subject is mediated by rules of behaviour which are explicit and implicit norms and conventions governing social interaction. The relationship between community and object is mediated by the division of labour which is "the explicit and implicit organisation of a community as related to the transformation process of the object into the outcome" (Issroff & Scanlon, 2002, p. 78). By adding the components of community, rules and the division of labour, activity theory shows how human behaviour is socially bound and depicts the unification of consciousness and activity or thinking and doing. Acting and consciousness or acting and learning are tightly bound together (Jonassen, 2000). I will explain what each component of the activity means using examples from the analysis of the activity examined in this study: the activity of learning to teach EFL.

Pre-service teachers are the subjects, the perspective of the analysis that is, the ones engaged in the activity of learning to teach EFL. Their actions are motivated by an object. The "object refers to the 'raw material' or 'problem space' at which the activity is directed and which is molded or transformed into outcomes with the help of physical and symbolic, external and internal tools", which mediate the activity (Engeström, 1993, p. 67). The activity of learning to teach EFL is guided to achieve the goal that is to become a qualified EFL teacher in Chile. However, pre-service teachers, as individuals, might have different motivations for example: becoming proficient in the foreign language, knowing another culture, being a professional, being a skilled worker, contributing to making Chile a more competitive country, a better

world. At the same time, other members of the community also have different views of the object of the activity. For example, for teacher mentors, pre-service teachers learning to teach means to be able to adapt to the school system. On the contrary, university supervisors see that pre-service teachers should not only become part of the school community but they should be able to change teaching practices.

Pre-service teachers engage in different actions to learn to teach EFL. First, they enrol in a teacher education program which allows them to acquire the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes to obtain the degree as a qualified teacher of English in Chile. As students in the teacher education program, they are students in different courses (such as phonology, grammar, language acquisition, and teaching methodology) and participate in different activities (teaching experience, practicum) and social practices (group work, group discussions, projects) in two main contexts: schools and university, which contribute to their learning, acquiring knowledge, and developing skills to achieve their goal.

Pre-service teachers are not alone in the endeavour of learning to teach EFL, they are part of a community that mediates pre-service teachers' learning and contributes to their formation as teachers. This community shapes and lends direction to the individual and shared activity (Thorne, 2004). Peers, other students, who are part of the program, pursue the same object. Teacher educators and teacher mentors are also members of the community who also contribute to shaping pre-service teachers' learning. Teacher educators and teacher mentors are experts in the field and experienced practitioners, they have knowledge, beliefs and expectations about language teaching that they want to transfer to pre-service teachers (Bailey, 2009). The school community and the university community have different epistemic objects, and sometimes their views of teaching and learning contradict each other.

The social and cultural practices of the specific community have historical and cultural constraints. In Chile, as discussed in Chapter 2, there are national standards that regulate teacher education programs. These national policies shape the curricula and performance outcomes of the programs. However, each teacher education program has its own peculiarities. For instance, the teaching practice experiences vary from program to program. In some cases, pre-service teachers have the support and guidance of teacher mentors and teacher educators, whereas in some others, pre-service teachers work autonomously at the schools.

Division of labour is present in the community and refers to the horizontal actions and interactions among the members of the community and to the vertical division of power and status (Engeström, 1993). Pre-service teachers have to adopt different roles and tasks in the activity of learning to teach EFL. For example, when they are at the school doing their practicum in the classroom, they become the managers of the classroom. They are the teachers and they make decisions of what to do or not to do. While, when they are in the lecture theatre as students, they are the students and they have to act as it is expected from a student point of view, in which the lecturer guides the process at that moment. Tasks are also different, if we consider pre-service teachers at school, tasks they usually have to do are: lesson plan writing, material preparation, teacher's meetings, and actual teaching. Whereas, as students of the language acquisition class the tasks assigned are typically: writing papers, reading discussions, oral presentations, etc.

Pre-service teachers as part of the community have to follow, respect and operate within certain rules and norms that regulate the interactions they have with the members of the community. These norms are embedded in the context they belong to and also influence the activity of learning how to teach a foreign language. For example, as university students, they have to meet the program's expectations and follow the rules regarding attendance, assessment and student behaviour. As teachers at the schools, they have to meet the school's expectations and follow the school curriculum and respect school rules and policy regarding classroom management, student-teacher relationships, punishment, etc.

Some of the artefacts that pre-service teachers use as mediating tools to learn how to teach can be the lectures, the practicum, the observation at school, the discussions with their teacher educators and teacher mentors about language teaching, their beliefs, and previous experience. The teaching experience or practicum is a very meaningful mediating tool to learn how to teach EFL. In the teaching practicum, pre-service teachers are confronted not only with the actions they have to do as future teachers, but also with the actual work involved in the teaching profession. Pre-service teachers have to operate as in-service teachers, doing most of the actions expected for a teacher: lesson planning, material preparation, and teaching.

As exemplified above, the value of this second generation activity theory approach is that it provides an analytical tool which both allows researchers to ensure that all the relevant factors of the activity are considered and provides a common ground for researchers using this

approach (Blunden, 2012). Engeström's triangle representation has been used in different contexts such as: workplace relationships, education, health, and computer science. Researchers have been attracted by the potential capacity of the triangular representation to depict complex social phenomenon.

Contradictions

One key tenet of activity theory is the view on contradictions as an inherent element of any activity. This perspective sees instability, tensions and contradictions as the "motive force of change and development" (Engeström, 1999b, p. 9) and the transitions and reorganisations within and between activity systems as part of evolution; it is not only the subject, but the environment, that is modified through mediated activity. Contradictions are manifested as tensions, conflicts, or breakdowns within the activity system or between different systems (Blunden, 2012; Kuutti, 1996). From this perspective, contradictions are not something negative, but problems requiring solutions which can lead to transformation in activity (Issroff & Scanlon, 2002). The exploration of the tensions and contradictions attempts to explain the nature of the activity and the dialectic relationship between the social and individual mind.

Contradictions can exist at various levels of the activity system and within each component of an activity system (Engeström, 1987). Primary contradictions exist within each constituent component of an activity system. For example, tensions can occur within the subjects. As will be seen in Chapter 9, in this study, pre-service teachers struggled with their own beliefs about language teaching and learning and the actual reality at the schools. Contradictions can appear between components of the activity, for example, between the community and the division of labour or between different activity systems, for example, between the schools and university (Barab, Evans, & Beak, 2004).These correspond to secondary contradictions. Tertiary contradictions oppose the object of the dominant activity with the object of a culturally more advanced activity; and quaternary contradictions exist between each entity of the dominant activity and the neighbouring activities. Both the tertiary and quaternary levels of contradictions usually occur between activity systems (Roth, et al., 2004).

As contradictions and tensions are manifested within activity systems, this may lead some individuals to question the status quo and deviate from expected norms. At times, this can develop into a collective endeavour to change the activity, a process called expansive transformation. This transformation is achieved when "the object and motive of the activity

are reconceptualised to embrace a radically wider horizon of possibilities than in the previous mode of the activity" (Engeström, 2001, p. 137).

Engeström's development on activity theory has continued moving further. From the representation of a single activity he elaborated on a network of activities. He developed this idea as based on his research an activity system is composed of a nested system of activities. Consequently, it is necessary to analyse the network as a whole rather than as isolated activities. Engeström has described this development as third generation activity theory (Engeström, Miettinnen, & Punamaki, 1999).

Third generation activity theory

Third generation activity theory builds on "the idea of multiple interacting activity systems focused on a partially shared object" (Engeström, 1987). Third generation activity theory, which has emerged in the last 15 years, incorporates ideas of dialogicality and multi-voicedness in order to expand the framework of the second generation. Multi-voicedness refers to the multiple points of view, traditions and interests represented by the community present in an activity system. Thus, multi-voicedness derives from the participants diverging divisions of labour, histories, artefacts, rules and conventions. Using Engeström's words "Multi-voicedness is multiplied in networks of interacting activity systems and it is a source of trouble and a source of innovation, demanding actions of translation and negotiation (2001, p. 136). In Figure 4.3, the object moves from an initial state of unreflected, situationally given 'raw material' to a collectively meaningful object constructed by the activity system, and to a potentially shared or jointly constructed object. The object of activity is "a moving target, not reducible to conscious short-term goals" (Engeström, 2001, p. 135). This emphasises the idea that an activity is an object oriented collective endeavour.

Third generation activity theory expands the framework of the second generation and draws on collaborating activity systems that are embedded in social, cultural and historical processes. Figure 4.3 illustrates the minimal unit of an activity system.

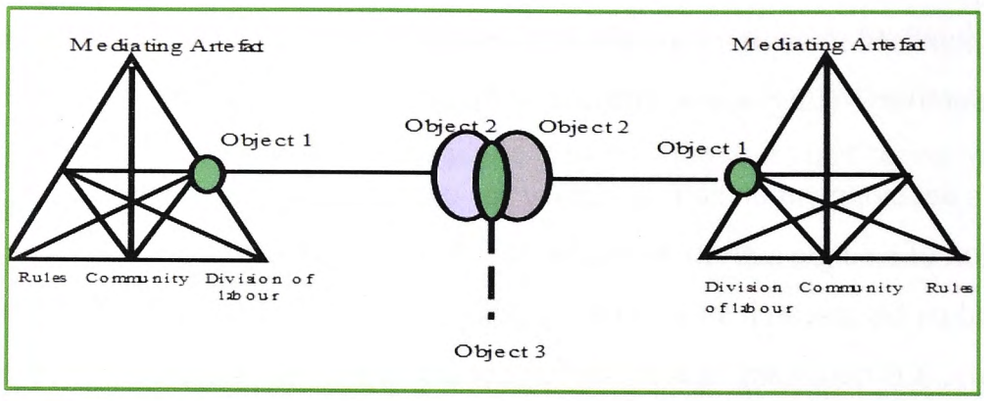

Figure 4.3: A minimal model for third generation activity theory from *"Expansive Learning at Work: toward an activity theoretical reconceptualization"*, by Y. Engeström, 2001, Journal of Education and Work, 14(1), p. 136. Copyright 2009 by Taylor & Francis. Reprinted by permission of Taylor & Francis LLC (www.tandfonline.com).

Engeström (1999b) argues on five explanatory principles that work as a framework of his activity theory. The five principles are listed below.

First, the prime unit of activity theory based analysis is centred on the collective (rather than the individual). Activity systems are collective, culturally mediated and object orientated (that is, intentionally toward a defined object) and are shaped and transformed by the ontogenesis of the activity system and other activity systems with which it interacts. Second, activity systems are multi-voiced and multi-layered, meaning they are complex and intersubjective. Third, the function of historically and culturally negotiated artefacts in mediating the 'social mind' is crucial to understanding the activity systems. Fourth, tensions and contradictions are both inevitable and essential to change and development in activity systems; and fifth, activity systems have expansive potential for development as contradictions are made visible and aggravated. These principles capture the complexity of activity systems and provide a sound framework to analyse complex learning environments such as the one reported in this thesis.

Third generation activity theory has been used to reveal contradictions between activity systems. This elucidation has served to be useful as the first start to overcome contradictions and expansive learning. For example, Engeström (2001) investigated the relationships and tensions between multiple activity systems in a healthcare system, and has sought ways to transform working practices to resolve contradictions in patient care.

Using an activity theory perspective, the relationship between different contexts such as schools and university settings can be reconceptualised as the interaction between activity systems (Tuomi-Gröhn & Engeström, 2003). Thus, the new unit of analysis expands from one activity system to "two or more collaborating activity systems that are embedded in a social,

cultural and historical process" (Tuomi-Gröhn, Engeström, & Young, 2003) (Tuomi-Gröhn, et al., 2003, p. 10)(Tuomi-Gröhn, et al., 2003, p. 10). The concept of learning across boundaries of activity systems (Engeström, 2001), as discussed in Chapters 1 and 3, has been used in the fields of teacher education and SLTE to examine the interaction of how student teachers learn in school-university partnership (Tsui & Law, 2007).

4.4 Activity theory as a research tool

This section outlines two main traditional uses of activity theory as a research tool within educational research, in teacher education specifically, and it outlines methodological implications for this study.

CHAT has been used mainly in two different ways in the last 20 years. On one hand, generally North American researchers such as Smagorinsky (2010), Werstch (1995) and Yamagata-Lynch (2010), have used Vygotskian's principles to understand complex learning environments (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). This line of research has put the emphasis on "individual internalization of cultural practices and mediational means" (Smagorinsky, 2010, p. 15) and has not necessarily used activity theory as an interventionist framework. Whereas in Europe, activity theory with an interventionist drive has dominated the research arena in the CHAT tradition.

Activity theory has been used to investigate human activity in a number of research fields (Jonassen, 2000) including human computer interaction (Kuutti, 1996; Nardi, 1996), workplace activity (Cole & Engeström, 1993; Engeström, 2001), and educational research (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). In these contexts, activity theory has been used in different ways. Activity theory does not provide a "ready-made methodology" (Jonassen, 2000, p. 97) nor a "strongly predictive theory", but it provides researchers with a "powerful and clarifying descriptive tool" (Nardi, 1996, p. 7) and "a methodological paradigm to carry out the necessary research" (Lantolf & Appel, 1994, p. 3).

Engeström and his supporters have advocated that activity theory is inherently an interventionist theory (Sannino, 2011). This means that activity theory's main goal aims at social transformation. Thus, Engeström and his team have developed the change laboratory which is an intervention toolkit used to promote change. This toolkit is inserted into the developmental work research (DWR) methodological framework (Sannino, 2011). DWR aims at expansive learning (Engeström, 2001). That is, participants and researchers get engaged in

the analysis of the complex learning environment they are part of, work collaboratively, and develop ways to transform their daily practices (Engeström, 2001).

DWR is a structured intervention in which ethnographic evidence, called mirror data, is shared with participants in the study in order to reveal tensions and contradictions within the systems in which the participants are working. Through these contradictions the research process itself enables the change and development of the system (Engeström, et al., 1999). The research process usually involves longitudinal investigations that include ethnographic observations, interviews and document analysis. The interactions from the DWR sessions are also analysed. DWR has been mainly used in workplace settings, and mostly in more egalitarian societies, such as Finland (Smagorinsky, 2010).

In the United States, especially in educational research, activity theory has been mostly used as a tool that "enhances understanding of human activity situated in a collective context" (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010, p. 1). In other words, activity theory has been used as a descriptive tool for understanding complex learning activities. Examples of studies using this perspective in educational research are Barab et al. (2004), Grossman et al. (1999), Jonassen (2000), Yamagata-Lynch (2007) and Yamagata-Lynch and Haudenschild (2009) among others. Even more, Yamagata-Lynch (2010) in her book Activity Systems: Analysis Method, strongly argues for the use of activity theory as a method of analysis within the perspective of CHAT. The studies mentioned here have served as a methodological base for the study reported in this thesis.

Although the above traditions differ in methodology, they share an understanding of learning as a co-constructed social activity mediated by artefacts (Ellis, et al., 2010). In this thesis, activity theory is used as an explanatory tool to study how pre-service teachers learn to teach EFL in Chile. The underlying assumption is that how pre-service teachers learn constitutes a social activity in which a complex system of factors shapes the experience of learning.

The next section presents the activity systems analysis method which has served as a base for the data analysis of this inquiry.

Activity system analysis method

Activity system analysis method is a term coined by Yamagata- Lynch (2010) to refer to the use of activity theory as an analytical tool to understand complex learning environments. This

author advocates that this method not only contributes to the understanding of human activity but provides the tools to plan implement and communicate research findings. The activity system analysis method can be seen as an instrumental application of Engeström's activity theory in qualitative research.

The activity system analysis method uses Engeström's triangular representation (see Figure 4.2) to represent the activity system studied. This representation is used to identify not only the components of the activity (subject, tools, object, community, rules, and division of labour), but also to reveal the contradictions within the activity. According to Yamagata-Lynch and Smaldino (2007) among many others such as Rogoff (1995), Wertsch (1991), and Barab et al. (2004), this method is useful because it makes it possible to analyse a specific social phenomenon embedded within its social context.

The activity system analysis method has proved to be useful to understand complex learning environments. According to Yamagata-Lynch, this analytic method provides an applicable method to analyse complicated data sets, and communicate findings in a manageable way. Engeström's triangular representation together with its corresponding narrative makes it possible to share the analysis and make the complexity of the learning environment visible to others (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). This is the reason why in this thesis activity theory is used as an analytical tool to examine and understand the activity of learning to teach EFL. The triangular representation is used to represent the activity. Contradictions and tensions of the activity will also be explored in light of the data.

4.5 Teacher learning and activity theory

In the context of teacher education and SLTE, there is a growing body of research that has employed activity theory to understand different aspects of how teachers learn to teach. One example of a study that has illuminated the activity of learning to teach has been the work of Grossman, Smagorinsky, and Valencia (1999). These researchers conducted a longitudinal study which studied 21 novice English teachers during their first years of teaching. They used activity theory to analyse teachers' learning and development. These authors argue that activity theory is a useful tool to understand teachers' learning. Even more, that activity theory can contribute to illuminate the changes in individual teacher's thinking and practice, even when it may vary from case to case, by simultaneously attending to individuals and the

settings in which they learn. Activity theory allows examining teachers' learning as a dynamic activity in different contexts mediated by teachers' beliefs and classroom practices.

Grossman et al. (1999) used activity theory to identify the levels of appropriation of the pre-service teachers in their teaching practices. As discussed in Chapter 3, Grossman et al.'s study (1999) is relevant to this thesis as it provides a base to understand how the participants of this study appropriated different concepts about language teaching, especially in the teaching practice. The use of activity theory as an analytical framework in this study proved to be useful illuminating the different levels of appropriation. Personal learning experiences, together with the teacher education program curriculum and the school culture shaped their learning and impacted their level of appropriation.

Following Grossman et al.'s line of research is the study of Newell, Gingrich and Johnson (2001). This study was also reviewed in the previous chapter as it situates the study reported in this thesis. It is also relevant because the authors used activity theory as a framework for investigating the contexts in which nine undergraduate and graduate pre-service teachers appropriated tools for teaching English in middle and secondary schools in the USA. These authors argued that activity theory provides a close approximation into teacher learning and development, especially in complex learning environments. One of the main issues of the study was to explore why and how pre-service teachers' thinking and practices were influenced differently by the diverse activity settings provided by their cooperating schools and school teachers during the practicum.

Newell et al. considered that pre-service teachers' academic trajectories and the university coursework, including school-based experiences, shaped the participants to principally use and modify pedagogical tools in context. Their findings suggested that when the university teacher education program was closely aligned with the cooperating school, pre-service teachers were more likely to appropriate the university-provided tools. When the settings did not align or conform it posed additional challenges for pre-service teachers to appropriate these same tools. As will be seen later, this finding is especially relevant to the study reported here; one contradiction between the university and school setting was the misalignment regarding their views of teaching and learning.

A key study in the context of school-university partnership is the one undertaken by Tsui and Law (2007). As reviewed in the previous chapter, these authors studied how learning was

mediated through a school-university partnership in Hong Kong, which involved two pre-service teachers; two mentor teachers; and two university teachers who were teacher educators. Two activity systems served as the units of analysis: (1) mentor teachers mentoring student teachers in school settings; and (2) university teachers supervising student teachers in their student teaching practicum. Tsui and Law's study revealed an understanding of teachers' learning as "a continuous process in which as we participate in new forms of activity and resolve contradictions, we come to a transformed understanding of the activity in which we are being engaged" (Tsui & Law, 2007, p. 1300). This study is very relevant to the research project reported in this thesis as it provides an understanding of the activity of learning to teach as a continuous engagement, and it also contributes to a similar context of analysis using activity theory.

A key finding, common in the studies reviewed above, seems to be that despite the shaping influences of social contexts, the study of activity settings reveals that there is no uniform explanation for pre-service teachers' development across the teacher education program. While two pre-service teachers, for example, may be enrolled in the same program and work at the same school, they may each have a different understanding of the school setting based on their own goals, histories, and activities within the school arena (Grossman, et al., 1999; Lave, 1988). This finding supports the assumption that agency plays a crucial factor in learning to teach.

The next section reviews a few studies whose research focus lies on learning to teach in EFL contexts with a CHAT approach. This review intends to provide a framework for the study reported in this thesis.

Activity theory and SLTE teacher education contexts

In EFL contexts, activity theory has also been used to understand how pre-service teachers learn to teach in specific contexts. One recent example of a study following this tradition is the one lead by Ahn (2011) in the Korean context. Ahn used activity theory to understand how a group of pre-service teachers learnt to teach EFL under the Korean curricular reforms. This author examined how four pre-service teachers' internalised the concepts embedded in the Korean curricular reforms and enacted those concepts in their instructional practices during the practicum experience.

Kyungja Ahn (2011) in her study examined how CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) based curricular reforms were implemented in a teacher education program in South Korea. This author traced how pre-service teachers developed their concepts during the practicum. This author used activity theory to explore to what extent pre-service teachers had internalised the curricular reform concepts, and what other factors had supported and restricted her development and which macro-structure should be addressed or changed so that the internalisation of concepts is more successful.

Ahn's study revealed that previous learning experiences and beliefs were an important resource that the pre-service teachers drew on in their teaching. In the case of one of the pre-service teachers studied, her beliefs were aligned with the curricular reforms; consequently, this made the implementation easier. Contradictions were also present in the activity. The views of teaching and learning EFL were different between the pre-service teacher and her teacher mentor. However, the pre-service teacher accepted the teacher mentor's authority and adopted her view even though this was in opposition with the university teacher's view. These results demonstrate that contextual constraints within the activity system have shaped the practicum experience of the pre-service teacher. Though she agreed with the use of English (one of the curricular reforms to be implemented) as a means of instruction, due to her students' learning styles and the class history and dynamics, it was difficult for her to enact the curricular reform.

Ahn's findings revealed that each student teacher experienced different degrees of internalisation depending on a range of individual, social, and institutional factors (Ahn, 2009). She argued that activity theory allowed her to understand how pre-service teachers developed concepts and why they emerged. This framework also provided her with an understanding of why curricular mandates were or were not enacted by the pre-service teachers during the practicum. Activity theory in her study contributed to explaining the affordances and constraints of internalisation.

How does activity theory contribute to illuminating the formation of teacher identity?

The formation of professional teacher identity has been a prominent topic in studies focusing on learning to teach a foreign language. The studies of Luebbers (2010), He (2013) and Dang (2013) have contributed to knowing how pre-service teachers construct their identity as they undertake their practicum. These three studies used activity theory to understand how pre-

service teachers learnt to teach. In the case of Luebbers' work (2010), this author examined how seven undergraduate foreign language pre-service teachers learnt to teach. The focus was on how pre-service teachers' motives, use and appropriation of tools, and teacher identity developed within two settings: the teacher education program and the schools during their practicum. Luebbers' findings confirm Newell's (2001) and Tsui and Law's (2007) previous findings. In her study, it became apparent that there were overriding motives that shaped actions within the teacher education program as well as demonstrating that the schools were misaligned to one another. The author explained that this is partly because the university and cooperating schools have been constructed through their own historical and culturally grounded actions and social participation (Luebbers, 2010). This was also reflected in my study as schools evidenced very different cultural and historical goals from the teacher education programs.

Another important finding in Luebbers' study was that each setting (school, university) mediated pre-service teachers' ways of thinking, learning, and acting like teachers. Tensions arose among differing motives, approaches to teaching, and pedagogical tools. As a result, pre-service teachers had the challenges of problem-solving, critically reflecting upon their teaching and teaching situations, and (re)creating and working toward developing identities as different types of teachers. Findings also suggest that most pre-service teachers in this study positioned themselves and (re)constructed their teacher identities during their practicum in relation to how they related to their students and teacher mentors at the schools. In turn, such ways of becoming teachers shaped pre-service teachers emerging teacher identities.

How does activity theory contribute to illuminating pre-service teachers' learning in the settings of school and university?

A study by He (2013) illuminated how pre-service teachers learn to teach in the context of the partnership between schools and university. The author investigated the teaching practicum of a cohort of EFL pre-service teachers in a partnership school in Hong Kong using activity theory. The participants were two pre-service teachers of EFL, four school mentors and two university teachers. The study examined how professional teacher identity was developed during the practicum. He's findings indicate that the pre-service teachers underwent legitimate peripheral participation during their practicum. This study also confirmed that though pre-service teachers, school mentors and university supervisors are co-participants of the activity of learning to teach, their objects did not seem to be consistent with each other.

The tensions and interpersonal relationships within the school-university partnership had an impact on pre-service teacher identity formation. These institutional factors were affected by both social educational factors and personal factors such as teacher professional knowledge, prior experiences, and personalities.

The work of Dang (2013) examined the evolution of the teacher identity of pre-service teachers in a paired placement during their practicum in Vietnam. She studied how two pre-service teachers in paired placement learnt to teach EFL. Her findings revealed a set of contradictions within the activity system. The author argued that contradictions in the learning activity were resolved as teachers worked collaboratively in a framework of cooperation and supported supervision. The first contradiction identified was in relation to the pre-service teachers' perceptions of student learning versus being faithful to the lesson plans. The second contradiction was in relation to the unequal division of roles and responsibilities between the two pre-service teachers. The third type of contradiction was reflected through the tensions between the different levels of appropriation of pedagogical tools.

Dang's study confirmed that pair-placements constitute a setting which is inherently contradictory as part of teacher learning. The contradictions were not seen as obstacles, but as potential enhancers of professional development. Dang's study shows how pre-service teachers' development was reflected through the resolution of contradictions. This acknowledges the role of peers as key in the "formation of professional identity via collaboration exchanges" (Dang, 2013, p. 57). Her findings suggest that pair placement during the teaching practicum is a promising model for pre-service teachers.

Dang employed activity theory to represent the activity system, and illuminate its contradictions. In this study, activity theory proved to be a useful tool not only to understand learning to teach EFL as an activity, but also to reveal the inherent contradictions of the activity. This elucidation is the first step to development, and as in Dang's study, when pre-service teachers resolved the tensions, as for example, when they had conflicts because of the multiplicity of identities as friends, students, and colleagues. Activity theory contributed to the understanding of the development of teacher identity in the cases studied. Dang concludes that "through planned and supervised collaboration the pre-service teachers resolved most of their conflicts, leading to qualitative change in their teaching professional identities" (2013, p. 58).

The studies reviewed in this section show that there is still significant work to be done in applying activity theory to second language teacher education research. First, it became apparent that the sample of studies reviewed reflects the fact that the application of activity theory to foreign language education programs is either severely underrepresented, or missing from the literature. Second, as the contexts of the studies differ so much, and are unique in nature, it continues to be absolutely necessary to research how pre-service teachers learn in different contexts and settings, and consequently reveal what pre-service teachers' actions are, where the actions take place and why. As seen in the studies reviewed here, learning has been examined as an activity which begins on the social plane, in social relations among individuals engaging in practical activity within spatial, temporal, and social contexts, before making its way to the intra-psychological plane of consciousness. This understanding is especially useful in teacher education as it allows problematising the historical divide between theory and practice. This has been the intention of my study.

4.6 Conclusions to the chapter

This chapter presented the key tenets of the theoretical framework adopted in this thesis, CHAT. First, Vygotsky's ideas of learning and cognition as a social engagement were discussed. I argued that in this thesis learning is seen as a socially mediated activity based on the Russian psychologist's legacy. Then, the chapter offered an overview of three generations of activity theory and a review of its main uses as a research tool. The discussion provided a general theoretical framework to understand the study on how pre-service teachers learnt to teach EFL in Chile.

In this chapter, I pointed out that activity theory is being used in this thesis as an analytical framework to make sense of the data. Though there is an acknowledgement that activity theory has an interventionist stand, in the case of this study, it will be used as a tool to understand the complexity of the activity of learning to teach EFL. The second part of the chapter reviewed some key studies that have used activity theory in the context of teacher education. The review was useful not only to know what the literature has said about the activity of learning to teach in other contexts, but also to become aware of the uses of activity theory in understanding complex learning environments.

This chapter has not been an attempt to provide a comprehensive account either of Vygotsky's legacy or of activity theory. I provided a review of the key literature in CHAT to

understand how I undertook my study. Thus, this chapter pointed to the direction of being a bridge between the focus of this thesis, learning to teach EFL in Chile, and the methodology used in the study. The next chapter presents the methodology, research design, and methods in detail. It presents the challenges of CHAT as an analytical framework and offers the methodological strategies adopted in this study.

Chapter 5: Methodology

5.1 Introduction

As the purpose of this thesis is to better understand the activity of learning to teach English in Chile, I explore how a group of pre-service teachers engage in learning to teach EFL; examining their actions, motives, mediating tools, and the contradictions within this activity. Therefore, the study is guided by one broad research question:

> *How do a group of final stage pre-service teachers learn to teach English in a Chilean SLTE teacher education program?*

By answering this research question, I seek to identify key factors which affect pre-service teachers' learning experiences. I analyse how the activity of learning to teach EFL is shaped, that is, afforded and constrained by these factors, and examine how contradictions within and between activity systems emerge and are resolved or remain unresolved. The purpose of this chapter is to explain how I designed the research project. In other words, in this chapter I report on the methodology employed. Initially, this chapter explores methodological considerations in relation to the qualitative inquiry research and the research question. After establishing the need for a qualitative methodology, the chapter examines the methodological implications of qualitative research and the use of CHAT as a heuristic. Focusing on more practical issues, the remainder of the chapter discusses the data collection methods and data analysis strategies employed. Finally, I report on the research decisions made in relation to trustworthiness and ethical issues.

5.2 Research methodology

Methodology is defined as "the strategy, plan of action, process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods and linking the choice and use of methods to the desired outcome" (Crotty, 1998, p. 3). The selection of an appropriate research methodology to understand how pre-service teachers learn to teach is crucial to this study as it offers practical guidance about how to conduct the research. Therefore, this section considers three key contextual factors which have influenced the selection of a theoretical framework for the

methodology: the nature of the research questions, the use of activity theory as a heuristic, and the personal experience of the researcher.

Qualitative Inquiry

This study adopted a qualitative inquiry approach to explore SLTE in Chile. This decision is justified as qualitative inquiry provides a flexible framework that can efficiently contribute to the understanding of a social phenomenon. This understanding considers participants' views, actions, and interactions in a very specific context.

Qualitative inquiry is a tradition of study focusing on understanding a phenomenon in context. As Patton (1990) explains:

> Qualitative inquiry is an effort to understand situations in their uniqueness as part of a particular context and the interactions there. This understanding is an end in itself, so that it is not attempting to predict what may happen in the future necessarily, but to understand the nature of that setting, what their lives are like, what's going on for them, what their meanings are, what the world looks like in that particular setting...the analysis strives for depth of understanding (p. 1).

This implies that qualitative inquiry is an attempt to study a social phenomenon in depth considering the specific setting and participants' interpretations.

Qualitative research views reality as a social construction built up by participants' actions, interactions, and interpretations (Merriam, 2009). This implies that there is not a single objective reality, but a negotiation of meanings constructed by the involvement of participants in the social world. This view is crucial for this study as it intends to capture an activity in which subjects are seen as agents of their actions shaped and mediated by different artefacts.

The qualitative inquiry tradition generally considers an interpretative or constructionist view of knowledge (Merriam, 2009). This study adopted a social constructionism perspective as this approach views knowledge as a social negotiation (Crotty, 1998). Participants and researchers are involved in the meaning making process as co-constructors of knowledge. They are not only receivers nor merely conveyers, but co-constructors of knowledge (Crotty, 1998). This study did not consider a traditional qualitative interpretative view (such as phenomenology and symbolic realism) since an interpretative perspective approaches the

construction of knowledge as the result of the interpretation of the participants, and does not see it as a negotiation of the individuals in the social world. The construction of knowledge is a dialectical process in which both the individual and collective are constitutive elements (Berger & Luckmann, 1967). This is the link with CHAT that sees learning as an activity. Thus, in this study, the underpinning assumptions are that the activity of learning to teach EFL is a multi-voiced collective activity, and that what happens in the activity is given by the active role of the participants' actions and the dialectic relation of the personal lived experience with the collective understanding and material reality. The participants' engagement in the activity and interaction with the social world they are part of, reveal the activity itself.

Qualitative inquiry is characterised by a study in a natural setting in which the researcher develops a rich understanding of participants' perspectives (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The researcher observes and interacts with participants, and engages in everyday actions to understand "how people make sense of their world and their experiences in the world" (Merriam, 2009, p. 13). This tradition requires a researcher who is highly interested in the relevance of everydayness and how participants interpret the phenomenon. This understanding contributes to uncovering the particularities and complexities of a specific context. The natural setting of this study is given by the research carried out in a specific teacher education program. The programs offers the opportunity to observe how future teachers learn to teach while engaged in several meaningful activities.

Qualitative inquiry is usually inductive (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). This means that theories are built upon from observations, interviews and documents collected in the fieldwork. Then, qualitative studies are richly descriptive and they usually comprise thorough accounts of the context, the participants and the specific phenomenon examined. These rich descriptions give account of participants' perceptions of the phenomenon studied (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). In this study, participants' views were closely considered as they were interviewed and their actions were observed for an extended period of time.

As investigators intend to understand a phenomenon, they become the primary instruments for data collection and analysis (Creswell, 1998; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 2009). In this sense, the phenomenon studied gets an insider's view. As a teacher of English and a teacher educator, I have had a close relationship with the activity of learning to teach EFL. As

a researcher, I seek a holistic understanding of the complexities of foreign language teacher education in Chile. As a researcher conducting fieldwork, I became an *observer-as-participant* (Kawulich, 2005) of the activity of learning to teach, not only observing pre-service teachers' actions, but also interacting with them, negotiating our understanding of the activity. The role as an *observer-as-participant* was adopted as my main role in the activity as a researcher, but I also engaged in the actions that pre-service teachers took. Being an *observer-as-participant* allowed me to learn about the actions and engagement of pre-service teachers in different settings.

To sum up, qualitative inquiry offers the preferred methodology to make sense of how pre-service teachers learn to teach EFL, examining their actions, motives, mediating tools and the contradictions in a specific teacher education program in Santiago. This methodology provides an appropriate framework to collect data and answer the research question of this study.

The next section presents a discussion about the adoption of CHAT as a conceptual tool in this study. This conceptual framework allowed the examination of the interplay of social practices of pre-service teachers with the community and institutional settings.

CHAT as a heuristic

As argued in the previous chapter, the adoption of CHAT as an analytical tool offers an appropriate method "to understand and describe the interaction between individuals and natural settings" (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). CHAT's most important tenet is that:

> Human development is based on active transformations of existing environments and creation of new ones achieved through collaborative processes of producing and deploying tools. These collaborative processes (involving development and passing on, from generation to generation, the collective experiences of people) ultimately represent a form of exchange with the world that is unique to humans—the social practice of human labour, or human activity (Stetsenko, 2005, p. 72).

This understanding offers a robust foundation to examine how pre-service teachers learn to teach, especially as it considers not only how participants understand the activity, but also how environmental factors impact on that understanding.

While traditional interpretative approaches focus on the individual and what each individual believes, thinks and does to learn, a CHAT perspective analyses the phenomenon as a collective activity (Roth & Lee, 2007). This means that the focus is on a collective activity system in which actions are goal oriented. In this study, the analysis of learning to teach as an activity allows us to examine complex interactions between the pre-service teachers, and the embedded sociocultural context, mediated by artefacts i.e. with what tools the pre-service teachers are acting, where the action takes place, and why the pre-service teachers are acting (motives and goals) in a specific way.

Using CHAT as a conceptual tool implies that this study is shaped by a social constructionism perspective which holds particular ontological and epistemological beliefs about the nature of reality and knowledge (J. S. Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989). In terms of ontology, a social constructionism stance asserts that reality is constructed through situated human activity. In terms of epistemology, social interaction is central to and crucial for the development of cognition and knowledge (Wertsch, 1985; Westberry, 2009). This means that there is an understanding of the "collective participatory process of active knowledge construction emphasizing context, interaction, and situatedness" (Salomon & Perkins, 1998, p. 2).

As Engeström (1993) points out, CHAT does not offer ready-made techniques and procedures for research; rather, it is a conceptual tool. Thus, CHAT must be adapted to the specific nature of the object being studied. However, central to the use of a CHAT approach is the recognition that a number of subject views in an activity need to be taken into account and interpreted. In this study, the collective views of the activity have been considered and brought in together. Though this study is focused on pre-service teachers' perspective, teacher mentors and teacher educators' views were also considered.

The divergent traditions of CHAT outlined in the previous chapter offer different challenges in terms of the choice of methodology. On one hand, using developmental work research methodology requires researchers and participants' commitment to transform the activity. To do so, an extensive period of time and significant resources are needed (Warmington et al., 2005). On the other hand, adopting CHAT to understand a phenomenon challenges the researcher to design appropriate research methods, as the theory does not provide ready-made procedures (Engeström, 1993). Though this study was broadly motivated by my personal engagement and commitment towards the improvement of SLTE, early in the research

process, I decided to seek an understanding of the activity, rather than transforming it. Therefore, I chose to use CHAT as a heuristic primary based on a series of motives. Firstly, there are insufficient studies that have documented the activity of learning to teach in Chile. Therefore, problematising and understanding the activity was a priority. Secondly, institutional and organisational factors constrained a bigger participation of pre-service teachers in the decision making process. And thirdly, this study was integrated into a research project that had a limited duration and funding.

In summary, the preceding section has discussed the selection of a qualitative framework and CHAT as a heuristic for this study. It has argued that CHAT is an appropriate lens for this study as Engeström observed:

> First, activity theory is deeply contextual and oriented at understanding historically specific local practices, their objects, mediating artefacts, and social organization (Cole & Engeström, 1993). Second, activity theory is based on a dialectical theory of knowledge and thinking, focused on the creative potential in human cognition (Davydov, 1988; and Ilyenkov, 1977). Third, activity theory is a developmental theory that seeks to explain and influence qualitative changes in human practices over time (Engeström, 1999b, pp. 377-378).

The next section discusses specific research methods supporting the qualitative paradigm and a CHAT perspective. As well, the practical implementation of the research design will be presented.

5.3 Research design

The design of this research reflects the perspective of CHAT as a conceptual framework which allows us to understand the complex activity of learning to teach EFL. This design aims at providing the methods to understand the activity. Thus, the research design contemplated the exploration of the activity system through the actions, motives and goals of participants. Similarly, the artefacts that participants used as mediators of the activity were identified; the settings where the activity was located were examined. This thorough examination uncovered how the studied cohort of pre-service teachers learnt to teach EFL. This examination was done through a complex data set that captured the complexity of the activity.

Context of the study and research settings

The institutional context

The institution where the study was undertaken is a Catholic private university based in Santiago, the capital city of Chile. This university was founded in the latter part of 20th century by a religious congregation. Its mission is to provide quality education and make Chile and Latin America a more egalitarian society. The university provides a comprehensive training to university students advocating for social commitment based on Christian values. This university offers a wide range of undergraduate and postgraduate programs. It is organised into six faculties: Faculty of Education, Faculty of Law, Faculty of Social Sciences, Faculty of Philosophy and Humanities, Faculty of Psychology, and Faculty of Economics and Business. The Faculty of Education includes five undergraduate Bachelors in Education with different specialisations: mathematics, adult education, primary, early childhood, and English as a foreign language.

The SLTE teacher education program became operational in 2005 as a response to the national need to implement educational reform. These can be summarised as: the shortage of teachers of English, especially at primary schools, and a new national policy towards better standards for graduate teachers of English. In this context, the program was born with the commitment to offer a course that can educate future teachers with a proficient level of English as well as with the necessary methodological skills to be able to teach the language to both children and teenagers. The program aims at training future highly qualified teachers of English to work at both primary and secondary levels. These future teachers should have the knowledge and skills to have a reflective practice, be self-critical, and socially committed to educate better citizens.

Participants

The program chosen, at the time studied, had an enrolment of 300 pre-service teachers in five different years of study. I decided to focus on the cohort corresponding to the fifth year pre-service teachers (n=24). This is justified as for pre-service teachers the activity of learning to teach EFL would be more apparent. At that stage, they had already been in the program for four years, and in this final year they were completing their last teaching practices and final thesis. As will be detailed later, I invited the whole group to participate in the research study,

but because of different reasons I was able to recruit only 15 pre-service teachers to be interviewed (S1-15), and 10 to be observed at schools (Fieldnotes 1-10)[12]. However, all of them allowed me to use their reflection reports (S1-24-R)[13] as part of my data and as a cohort they participated in the discussion group.

Most pre-service teachers who participated in this study had enrolled in the program in either the year 2007 or 2008. The average age of the group was 21 years old and it was female dominated (4 only male participants).They became the second generation of graduates of the teacher education program. Most of the pre-service teachers came from low-middle socio-economic backgrounds and studied at public or subsidised schools in the densely populated suburbs of Santiago. Though they were taught English for at least four years at secondary school, their entry level to the program was at a primary school level. From the data analysed, it was apparent that at the schools they had been taught English in Spanish, and they were taught mostly grammatical rules. They had not been to any English speaking country and they had virtually no contact with native speakers of English before entering the program.

Not only were pre-service teachers' views considered in the study, but also the rest of the community of the SLTE program: teacher educators, school teachers and administrators. Twenty teacher educators were employed at the time of the study. Most of them worked on a casual basis. After interviewing the head of the program (H1_I) and obtaining an understanding of the dynamics of the workplace, I decided to interview teachers from different disciplines (English, linguistics, practicum supervisors, education, and assessment) who had worked in the program for at least two years. Another criteria used was that these teachers had taught the cohort studied during any stage of the program. In the end, eight teacher educators (TE) were interviewed. The average age of the group was 45 years old and three were male. Four school teachers (TM) were interviewed as well. These four teachers were female teacher mentors that worked with the pre-service teachers during their practicum. The average age of this group was 40 years old.

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[12] This corresponds to the coding system I used to classify the data obtained from participants: pre-service teachers' interviews (S1-15_I), field notes (Fieldnotes 1-10), head of the program's interview (H1-I) teacher educators' interviews (TE1-8-I), and teacher mentors' interviews (TM1-4-I)

[13] This corresponds to the coding system I used to classify the data obtained from pre-service teachers' reflection reports.

Settings

Two settings were used for the study. The first setting was the university. I observed pre-service teachers in their roles as students in workshops and lectures. I became an *observer-as-participant* in one of their compulsory courses. I selected the discussion seminars course as one space where pre-service teachers could be seen in full action as students. This course consisted of a weekly seminar in which they reflected upon their own teaching practices in the light of educational literature. As will be seen below, at the university I also collected documents, such as the course outlines and course structure, and pre-service teachers' artefacts such as their lesson plans and reflection pieces.

The second setting was the schools where the pre-service teachers were undertaking their practicum. The schools allowed me to observe pre-service teachers' engagement into teaching. These two settings were considered in the study as they were key locations where pre-service teachers' actions took place. This was coherent with a CHAT perspective, in which the activity setting is an environment where participants are bound together by the actions and activities in which they engage (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010).

5.4 Data collection methods and process

Using CHAT as a conceptual framework offers a challenge to the selection of research methods. To answer the research question stated we needed to study the activity and its object. This was not a simple task, as Christiansen (1996) stated, "the activity is not immediately accessible consciously, so you cannot interview people about their activity directly through rote questions but must interpret their actions and opinions after some careful reflection" (1996, p. 178). Therefore, as Scribner (1985) has pointed out, data should be collected through ethnographic methods of participant observation, interviews, and discussions in real life settings. I agree with Christiansen, and believe that the activity can be unfolded as the activity emerges. This is the reason why I decided to observe pre-service teachers' actions, mediated by artefacts focusing on the participants through historical inquiry, observation, and interviews (Christiansen, 1996).

Data were collected in the settings of the activity of learning to teach in a Chilean SLTE program including the schools where pre-service teachers were undertaking their practicum. The data collection process took over a period of 12 weeks detailed further later (see Data

collection methods on page 105). The next section describes the methods used in the study and a corresponding justification.

Table 5.1 below summarises the data collection methods described in this section.

Table 5.1: Summary data collection methods

Data Collection Methods	Artefacts/participants
Interviews (see Appendix A)	Final stage pre-service teachers (S1-15_I), head of the SLTE program (H1-I), teacher educators (TE1-8-I), and teacher mentors (TM1-4-I)
Observations and follow up interviews (see Appendix B)	Pre-service teachers at the schools (Field notes 1-10) and at discussion seminar sessions (Field notes U-8)
Self-reflection reports (see Appendix C)	Pre-service teachers' reflections on the practicum (S1-24-R)
Documents (see Appendix G)	National policy for teachers, curriculum, history, accreditation criteria
Group Discussion (see Appendix D)	Pre-service teachers' discussion on the practicum (GD)
The researcher	Observer-as-participant

Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were carried out. They provided a flexible format questioning participants about their views and understandings of the activity that is not accessible through observations (Merriam, 2009). The questions of the interviews aimed at identifying information about the participants, existing or lacking artefacts, and the participants' perspectives about the object of the activity, as well as information about documents and artefacts that relate to existing rules and division of labour, also about the communities in which their activities are situated. The participants interviewed were final year pre-service teachers, the head of the teacher education program, teacher educators, and school teachers. They were asked to reflect on how they think pre-service teachers had been learning to teach EFL. Participants offered their views on the course structure of the SLTE program, their expectations and experiences for pre-service teachers learning to teach, their roles and the most meaningful factors that contributed to learning to teach English. The semi-structured interviews contemplated questions such as the ones below and varied according to the participant (see Appendix A: Interview questions on page 267):

- What motivated pre-service teachers to enrol in the SLTE program?

- What have been the most meaningful experiences as a pre-service teacher in the program?
- How do you think pre-service teachers have learnt to teach in this program?
- What have been the affordances and constraints of the SLTE program in learning to teach?
- What has been your role in learning to teach?

These interviews were conducted in Spanish. Though all participants and the researcher spoke English, I decided to conduct the interviews in the participants' mother tongue. This decision was made to avoid pressure and intimidation on the participants. As English is their field of sought expertise, I wanted to eliminate any sort of trace that could be implied that the interviews would be used as an evaluation of their level of English. The interviews lasted between 30 minutes and one hour each. It is important to note that I had taught English to most of the pre-service teachers in their first year of the program (four or five years before I interviewed them).

Recruiting participants

I sent invitations by email to three Chilean universities that I had worked for in the last ten years of my career as a teacher educator in Chile. One university accepted my invitation and showed their willingness and cooperation to participate. I had worked in this SLTE program from 2006 to 2008 as a teacher of English to first and second year students. I decided to complete the fieldwork research in this SLTE program as the knowledge and experience acquired before would give me a deeper understanding of the activity, and would also allow me to be immersed in the community easily. Through email and Skype from Australia I coordinated the necessary actions to complete the fieldwork the first semester of 2011.

Already in Santiago, I met the head of the SLTE program and presented my research project to her. I was warmly welcomed, assigned a small office and given a significant number of documents about the program, and the university. The interview with the head of the program revealed her leadership and commitment to the program. Then I contacted the convener of the program and coordinated actions to meet the pre-service teachers, the final year students of the SLTE program, and the teacher educators. As a result of this meeting, I was invited to the

discussion seminar sessions to meet the pre-service teachers, present them my project, and invite them to participate.

Regarding teacher educators, I wrote emails to each of them, explaining the project and introducing myself to the ones I had not met before. All of them accepted my invitation to participate very enthusiastically. They were very helpful providing information, documents and suggestions. During my stay at the program, apart from the interviews, I had chats with them frequently. Some of them asked for my opinion about different matters that went beyond the research study.

Getting to know the participants

At the seminar, most of the pre-service teachers expressed their willingness to participate in the study, but they were also concerned about their lack of time. The pre-service teachers invited me to attend the weekly seminars as another way to obtain insights of their views. Though I had intended to participate in one of the courses they were taking, I did not know which one. Therefore, the invitation to the seminars was the best option. I asked the teacher of the seminar permission to attend and I participated in these seminars for eight weeks.

I scheduled the times for individual interviews with the pre-service teachers at the seminar and I started interviewing them the next week. At that moment, pre-service teachers were staring their practicum, so their academic load was not that stressful. However, as the term progressed, they became busier and only 15 of them were interviewed. Pre-service teachers signed participants' consent forms (see Appendix E) before we started the interview. The interviews lasted between 30 to 45 minutes each. I asked the participants about their motives for enrolling in the program, the reasons they chose to become teachers of English, their views towards the program itself, the curriculum and the teaching practice experiences; I finished asking them about their expectations about the practicum and their future as teachers. Each interview was a unique experience in which I tried to listen to each pre-service teacher attentively. Overall, I felt a sense of admiration for each of them, as their experiences revealed a great sense of resilience and commitment to the teaching profession.

Observations

I observed pre-service teachers performing two roles: as university students and as school teachers. Pre-service teachers were observed as students at university in one of their weekly classes. The discussion seminars were chosen, as they were the formal instructional activity in

which pre-service teachers reflected on the activity of learning to teach EFL. Pre-service teachers' actions as teachers undertaking their practicum at the schools were witnessed and shadowed. Observation allowed me to obtain first-hand experience of participants' everyday actions. The examination of pre-service teachers' actions contributed to mapping out the activity exploring the different roles in the different settings that pre-service teachers adopted. These actions are coherent with a CHAT perspective, which sees as necessary the observation of situations in which participants are engaged in goal-directed actions and object oriented activities (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010).

Observations at discussion seminar sessions

The discussion seminars were weekly sessions in which pre-service teachers met at a fixed time for two hours. The teacher educator led the discussions and activities in English. The topics of these seminars were around pre-service teachers' roles as teachers, classroom management strategies to provide rules, instructions, etc. The seminars usually included an open discussion of some reading texts, and group activities about a specific case or problem and/or pre-service teachers' experiences at the school. Field notes of the discussion seminars were taken in handwritten form. The focus of the observations was guided by two questions: what are the participants doing? And why? These notes were written in English.

Observations of the pre-service teachers' actions allowed me, as a researcher, to describe what pre-service teachers did as teachers at the schools and as students at university. The immersion in the program lasted 12 weeks. As discussed above, I was an *observer-as-participant* at the discussion seminar sessions. In these sessions, pre-service teachers reflected on their teaching and associated topics in relation to the practicum. This seminar was led by an experienced educator who was also a tutor of eight students in that group. For the first two sessions I sat at the end of the room observing what was going on in the class and took notes; but after the second week, it became absolutely necessary to become a more active participant. Pre-service teachers usually asked for my opinions about the topics discussed. They also asked me for tips and teaching strategies. The seminar usually included group activities, so instead of sitting at the end of the room, I decided to be part of the activities and get to know the pre-service teachers, gain their trust and gain familiarity with the group dynamics. In the group discussions, pre-service teachers usually shared their views about the

topic or task, and they would ask for my opinion. I became acquainted with the dynamics of the class and I could observe pre-service teachers' behaviour as students.

Observations at the schools

After interviewing the students individually, I contacted them again to coordinate accompanying them to the schools where they were doing their practicum. This stage was much more complicated to coordinate for different reasons. First, the schools were geographically distant from each other. Second, I had to present the research project to each school and recruit participants' and seek their consent. Participants were also reluctant to be observed. I explained the project and asked for permission at ten schools. In the end, I managed to shadow the actions of ten pre-service teachers at their schools. I accompanied each pre-service teacher for a day at the school. I was with them while they were teaching and also outside the classroom, interacting with other teachers, or preparing their lessons and material. I could observe how they enacted themselves as teachers. I talked to each pre-service teacher during the day or after the observation about the actions they were doing and the reasons why they were doing them. I also audio recorded their classes and provided these recordings to them. Pre-service teachers were very keen to receive my feedback about their teaching, and though this was not the purpose of the observations, they welcomed it warmly.

The observations included a full day at the school with each student. Field notes were generated in English in handwritten form responding to the questions: what are the participants doing? And why? It was also considered the pre-service teachers' workplace in terms of facilities and their interaction with the rest of the school community. The lessons that pre-service teachers taught were audio recorded. These recordings were given back to pre-service teachers. Pre-service teachers were highly interested in receiving feedback regarding their performance as EFL teachers. The observations (see Appendix B) of the lessons focused on the structure of the lesson, tasks, use of English, the role of the teacher mentor in the classroom, and the interaction of the pre-service teacher with both students and teacher mentors.

Shadowing pre-service teachers' actions at the schools was a great learning experience for me as well. Although as a teacher and a teacher educator myself I had lived similar experiences, this time was different. To start with, each school was singular, not only in terms of their facilities and classrooms, but also regarding their organisation, and of course how they

integrated the pre-service teachers into the school life. Second, at the schools, I confirmed pre-service teachers' commitments towards the profession in their actual teaching and interactions with their students. Third, I could witness pre-service teachers' interactions with the school community first-hand.

At the schools, I met the teacher mentors that worked with the pre-service teachers. In most cases, it proved very difficult to talk to them. Teacher mentors were very busy and reluctant to be interviewed, or have a chat or participate in any way in the study. Although I explained to them that the study had a focus on pre-service teachers' learning, teacher mentors were not keen to collaborate. They definitely had too many things to do and no time allocated to do extra work such as assisting pre-service teachers, or talking to me. I acknowledge that they had too much to do, and too little time, but I also think that they felt a bit intimidated by me. Teacher educators explained that this attitude responded to a sort of inferiority complex and it was very common that school teachers felt judged or evaluated at their work. In the end, I was only able to interview four teacher mentors.

The observations provided first-hand experience of how pre-service teachers experienced the boundary crossing between the schools and at the same time how they engaged in learning to teach EFL. Each observation was a unique experience. Through observations and interviews I was able to see the greater context and how everyday goal-directed actions fit into the object oriented activity of learning to teach EFL.

Documents

In the particular context of the teacher education program chosen, the historical origins of SLTE in Chile were examined. As reviewed in Chapter 2, the national curriculum, national policy regarding teacher education programs, accreditation criteria of teacher education programs, and historical accounts of the university and program were examined. This provided a contextual understanding of the historical and cultural origins and changes of the teacher education program situated in the Chilean context.

Artefacts, such as curricula, assessment criteria, course outlines, and policy of the SLTE program, were collected and analysed. These documents were provided by the administrative staff of the program at my request. These documents were in Spanish. The course structure document was key to analysing how the program, in terms of the institution, decided to

provide instructional activities to learn to teach EFL. University policy provided a view of the mission, vision and rules of the organisation as a whole. Course outlines and assessment criteria contained the learning outcomes that pre-service teacher graduates were expected to achieve. The documents were collected to gain an understanding about the rules and division of labour that shaped participant engagement in everyday activities from an organisational perspective. These documents were in Spanish as well. The analysis of these materials is discussed thoroughly in the next chapter.

Self-reflection reports

Pre-service teachers' self–reflection reports were also collected. These reports were written by all final stage pre-service teachers (24) at the end of the practicum. These reports were not especially written for the research project. They were one of the activities completed at the discussion seminar sessions intended to make pre-service teachers reflect on their strengths and weaknesses as a teacher at the practicum. These reports revealed pre-service teachers' views on their own learnings as a teacher of English at the schools. The self-reflection reports were written in English.

Group discussion

During week eight I had planned to complete group discussions. My first intention was to have two sessions with pre-service teachers in groups of eight. This was impossible to do as they had to teach in the mornings at the schools, and in the afternoons they had lectures and workshops. Therefore, the only possibility was to use one of the sessions of the discussion seminars. The teacher of the seminar liked the idea that I took over and facilitated the session. Pre-service teaches accepted my intervention and participated eagerly in the session.

The group discussion was carried out to obtain pre-service teachers' collective views on the practicum. This discussion was led in English as this was the customary language used in that class. The discussion was around the pre-service teachers' understanding of the practicum, its activities, their expectations contrasted with their current experiences, and the affordances and constraints of the practicum. I presented four questions to pre-service teachers:

- What is the purpose of the practicum?
- What do you expect to learn from the practicum?
- What are the obstacles you have faced at the school?

- What could be done to improve the practicum experience?

In small groups, pre-service teachers discussed these questions and agreed on answers to discuss as a plenary. I went around during the discussion and prompted some questions in the small groups. I did not provide my views in the discussion. I facilitated the plenary, and each group presented their answers to the questions. The responses were written down on the board. The session was audio recorded, and the board with the answers was photographed. This discussion allowed pre-service teachers to share their views and contrast them with their peers. As a researcher, I could observe their interactions and contrasted their personal views with the group ones. This was important to gain a collective understanding of the activity, and also to contribute to pre-service teachers' reflection on their own learning. This experience allowed me to gain a collective understanding of the practicum. It also revealed how pre-service teachers positioned me as distant from the university and the other teacher educators.

Role of the researcher

As discussed above, I became a method to collect data as well in my role of *observer-as-participant*. This implied that I was first and foremost seen as an observer who engaged in the activities of the participants being studied (Kawulich, 2005). This role suited the purpose of establishing a relationship of trust with the participants allowing me to engage in the activity of learning to teach EFL.

I had worked in the studied SLTE program, and had been a teacher for the pre-service teachers four or five years before the study. This previous relationship had set a precedent of the possible interactions to have with the participants. The observations intended to gain "the systematic description of events, behaviours, and artefacts in the social setting chosen for study" (Marshall & Rossman, 1989, p. 79). Therefore, it was necessary that I was as present as possible to capture what was going on in the different settings. Active looking, informal interviewing, detailed written field notes, and a lot of patience were used to observe and participate in the activity. The participation consisted of not only observing the actions and interactions of pre-service teachers with the rest of the community, but an active engagement in the group discussions in the seminars, and also as an advisor for pre-service teachers about their teaching. At the schools, as I observed pre-service teachers' teaching they urged me to give them feedback and suggestions about their lessons.

The collection of this bricolage of data provided a rich set to be analysed. As will be seen in the findings, this allowed a holistic understanding of the activity of learning to teach EFL.

Table 5.2 below provides a summary and an overview of the data collection process in time.

Table 5.2: Data collection timeline

Action	October 2010	December 2010	January 2011	February 2011	March 2011	April 2011	May 2011	June 2011
Ethics approval	X							
Invitation to universities to participate in the study		X						
Preparation of material to collect data (translation, photocopies, study documents)			X					
Meeting and interview with head of the SLTE program				X				
Presentation of research project to pre-service teachers					X			
Observation-participation at the discussion seminars					X	X	X	
Interviews with pre-service teachers				X	X	X		
Interviews with teacher educators				X	X	X		
Observations at the schools						X	X	
Interviews with school teachers						X	X	
Document collection		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Collection of pre-service teachers' self-reflection reports								X

Data preparation for analysis

In order to analyse the data collected, the data were transcribed and translated into English when necessary. Interviews had been audio recorded with the participants' consent. I and a couple of Spanish speakers transcribed the interviews. Then I translated them into English and uploaded to Nvivo 9.0 software. The transcriptions registered the interviews completely; hesitations, fillers, and intonation markers were not marked on the transcription texts.

Translating interviews was somewhat challenging as I had to find equivalent words in English, especially when participants used colloquial language. After completing the translations, I checked the intelligibility and linguistic equivalencies into English with other researchers and made sure that the meanings were as equivalent as possible. I decided to complete the translations myself as my competence in English and Spanish is highly proficient. I am a native speaker of Spanish, and an advanced speaker of English. I am a qualified teacher of EFL, and had lived in Australia for more than three years. Transcribing and translating the collected data allowed me to become deeply immersed in the data from the very beginning.

The collected documents were mainly in Spanish. They were not translated into English, they were analysed as they were. This decision was made because the examination of these documents did not require a word by word analysis. The documents provided a historical and cultural understanding of rules, policy and standards of the teacher education program. The documents were also uploaded to Nvivo software to proceed with the analysis.

Field notes of observations were written in English in handwritten form. Then they were transcribed into word documents and uploaded to Nvivo software as well.

This section presented the data collection methods and the reasons why these were chosen. The data collection process demonstrates a research design to uncover the object of the activity system, its multi-voicedness, the artefacts or tools that mediate learning, rules that regulate pre-service teachers' doing, the communities, and tasks and roles adopted by participants. The final section of this chapter explores trustworthiness and ethical issues of this study.

5.5 Trustworthiness

There is no doubt that "research studies must be rigorously conducted" (Merriam, 2009, p. 210) in order to have a sound effect on the theoretical or practical issues in a specific field. In the quantitative paradigm, validity and reliability are requirements that guarantee scientific rigour. On one hand, validity refers to the "demonstration that a particular instrument in fact measures what it purports to measure" (L. Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2009, p. 133). On the other, reliability is usually related to the replicability of the studies. It relates to accuracy and precision of instruments. Thus, validity and reliability presuppose that reality is one objective truth that is to be discovered and measured by researchers. These underpinnings are contrary to qualitative inquiry which sees reality as "holistic, multidimensional and ever-changing" (Merriam, 2009, p. 213). Therefore, trustworthiness is the answer to ensure a systematic study in qualitative inquiry.

Trustworthiness responds to the need to make sense of findings in qualitative inquiry. As Lincoln and Guba (1985) put it, "qualitative studies should respond to the question of why the findings are worth paying attention to" (p. 290). This means that findings should be the result of systematic study evidenced by the data collection and analytical process used in the research. Thus, trustworthiness can be evaluated through credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability of research findings. Credibility is an evaluation of whether or not the research findings represent a "credible" conceptual interpretation of the data drawn from the participants' original data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 296). Transferability is the degree to which the findings of this inquiry can apply or transfer beyond the bounds of the project. Dependability is an assessment of the quality of the integrated processes of data collection, data analysis, and theory generation. Confirmability is a measure of how well the inquiry's findings are supported by the data collected (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Considering what trustworthiness means, I took different measures to assure trustworthiness in the study. The following described the strategies used:

1. Well established research methods such as interviews, observations and group discussion, were adopted. These methods have been extensively used in qualitative inquiry as they provide rich data in order to understand a social phenomenon. This was done as a means of enlarging the landscape of the

inquiry, providing a deeper and more comprehensive picture of the activity of learning to teach EFL. A description of the rationale for the selected methods of the study has been reported in this chapter. Although this study is context bound and the activity of learning to teach EFL is very specific to the setting and participants described in this thesis, the methodology and methods used in this study can be used as the base for other studies.

2. I developed an early familiarity with the culture of the participating institutions. As I had recently worked in the SLTE program studied, familiarity with the context and participants was achieved even before fieldwork began. This fact enabled me to get closer to participants and gain their trust. This allowed me to obtain a rich data set.

3. The participants of the study were composed of different individuals who had different roles in the activity of learning to teach EFL. Thus, not only pre-service teachers were interviewed but teacher educators, and teacher mentors as well.

4. I kept a reflective diary throughout the research process. As part of the research, I wrote my reflections about the study on a blog, and also wrote memos about the data analysis. These reflection pieces not only described the research process, but questioned, and challenged the research as well. Writing on a blog contributed to a systematic process of reflexivity.

5. My background, qualifications and experience are suitable to complete research in this area. This experience has given me an impetus to understand further the activity of learning to teach EFL.

6. Some of the participants of the study also participated in the analysis process. The first analysis of the interviews was shared with some of the teacher educators of the program.

7. I have written a thick description of the phenomenon under scrutiny in this thesis as it has already become apparent.

8. I acknowledge that there might be shortcomings in the selection of methods and their potential effects. I recognise the lack of infallibility in this study. In Chapter 10 the limitations of this study will be discussed in detail.

5.6 Ethical issues

As many others have encountered, "educational research is an inescapably ethical enterprise … to be conducted rigorously, scrupulously and in an ethically defensible manner" (L. Cohen, et al., 2009, p. 49). Such is the case of this study and in accordance with the ethical guidelines issued by the Australian National University ethics committee; privacy and confidentiality were respected throughout the research process (protocol 2010/309, EFL teacher education in the Chilean context).

As stated earlier in the data collection procedures I met with the participants before the study commenced and the aim of the research and the nature of the study were clearly explained to them. The project was explained in the participants' mother tongue, Spanish. Requests were made for them to participate in the interviews and observations on a voluntary basis. Participants were assured that participation and non-participation would not affect their grades at the discussion seminar nor at the practicum. They were provided with copies of participant information sheets and consent forms. Consent was obtained from all participants prior to the study starting. All participants were assigned a number to ensure their identities remained confidential. All participants were also assured that the information they provided would be used to fulfil the aims of this study and further research which would be published in journal papers.

5.7 Conclusions to the chapter

This chapter has outlined the research design and described the research procedure used in detail. A qualitative approach was adopted to answer the research question: how do pre-service teachers learn to teach EFL? Moreover, the research design considered a CHAT perspective. This perspective takes into account a dialectic view of learning, i.e. learning is a socially co-constructed activity mediated by tools, therefore, not only pre-service teachers' understanding of the activity were considered, but other sociocultural factors were examined together with the rest of the members of the community as well. This is reflected in the

bricolage of methods used: interviews, observations, group discussion, and self-reflection reports, and document analysis.

This chapter has argued for CHAT as an explanatory tool and suitability as a perspective for this study. As discussed in Chapter 4, CHAT has been recognised as a robust philosophical framework for the research and analysis of the complex social mediation of human learning and development. Thus, CHAT provides a suitable framework for examining the activity of learning to teach EFL. The methodological implications of a CHAT perspective reside in looking at how pre-service teachers learn as an activity analysing pre-service teachers' motives, actions, artefacts and relations with the school community and university community.

The next chapter discusses the nature of the data analysis process in the qualitative inquiry tradition. Then, it describes and justifies the data analyses strategies used in this study. The strategies are not only explained but illustrated with examples of the data providing the first overall findings. It presents the interacting activities that comprise the activity system of learning to teach English in the Chilean context.

Chapter 6: Data analysis

6.1 Introduction

This chapter is a reflexive account of the data analysis done in this research study. It aims at describing and exploring the data analysis methods used in this study, and providing examples of the data. This chapter also intends to provide an initial exploration of the data set with descriptions and my interpretations of the activity of learning to teach EFL in Chile supported by the data set. I begin the chapter exploring what is implied by data analysis in qualitative research, and the analytical approach used in this study. Then, I detail the procedures, strategies and stages of the data analysis process. In the last section, I foreshadow the key findings of the study which will be elaborated in the following chapters.

6.2 What is data analysis?

Data analysis is "the crucial stage of the research process when we make sense of the data" (Merriam, 2009, p. 5). Researchers interpret the data after constructing and deconstructing its component parts. Merriam argues that making sense out of data "involves consolidating, reducing, and interpreting what people have said and what the researcher has seen and read- it is the process of making meaning" (2009, pp. 175-176). The researcher makes meaning through the analysis: we find the answers to the research questions and this allows us to make sense. Data analysis is the stage in which we actually see what the research is about.

Data analysis in the qualitative tradition is usually an iterative "recursive and dynamic process" (Merriam, 2009, p. 169). This means that the research design of qualitative studies is usually emergent; the data is collected in different stages, and the analysis is done both at the moment of collecting data and after the collection. The analysis is done in different ways; findings are drawn, revisited, and restructured. This implies that there is not a fixed set of procedures. Each qualitative study has its unique data analysis approach depending on the nature of the problem and the research design (Patton, 2002). Data analysis in the qualitative tradition is not a fixed process that follows a strict set of steps. In this study, the analysis procedures use free coding as the first step, but then, the analysis follows a CHAT perspective delineating the activity.

Data analysis is a complex and challenging process. As Patton (2002) stated:

> ...the ongoing challenge, paradox and dilemma of qualitative analysis engage us in constantly moving back and forth between the phenomenon of the program and our abstractions of that phenomenon, between the descriptions of what has occurred and our interpretations of those descriptions, between the complexity of reality and our simplifications of those complexities, between the circularities and interdependencies of human activity and our need for linear, ordered statements of cause-effect (pp. 480-481).

This implies that data analysis is a continuous inductive-deductive iterative process.

One of the main characteristics of qualitative research is that it allows us to see through the eyes of the participants (Kawulich, 2005). Thus, researchers listen and tell participants' stories. In the data analysis process, themes and categories usually emerge from the data, and then some concepts are imposed to the data and vice versa. In this study, the researcher has interpreted and reinterpreted the data not only from the data set, but also from the existing literature of SLTE and from a CHAT perspective.

The data analysis process in a qualitative research study, such as this one, takes a social constructionism stance. Reality is socially co-constructed. The researcher's view on reality is that it is based upon perceptions that are different for each person and change over time. These perceptions are co-constructed and negotiated in social interactions. Hence, "all knowledge and therefore all meaningful reality as such is bound to human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context" (Crotty, 1998, p. 42). In other words, knowledge originates from accessing and studying subjective meaning, and understanding how the subject makes sense of their world as they experience it.

The use of a social constructionism perspective supports this decision as the qualitative paradigm and CHAT share similar ontological and epistemological beliefs by recognising that individuals play an active role in constructing their reality within specific social and cultural contexts.

A CHAT perspective to the analysis of the data considers the study of the phenomenon as an activity. Understanding learning to teach EFL as an activity implies a dialectic perspective. A

dialectic perspective of learning and identity begins with considering the relation between the individual and collective (Roth, et al., 2004).

6.3 Reflexivity in the data analysis process

As discussed above, the data analysis process involves methods that are not "simply neutral techniques" (Mauthner & Doucet, 2003, p. 415). Through the use of reflexivity, the analysis of observations, accounts from interview participants, and document data, are revealed as an unmistakable or unproblematic relationship to anything outside the empirical reality at the level of the data analysis process (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009). This means that for a reflexive researcher, empirical data are not just facts in any straightforward sense, but rather, the data emerging from a study are aspects of the empirical material that served as one of many arguments in favour of a particular interpretation. As Alvesson and Skoldberg (2009) observe, the reflexive researcher should acknowledge that any study highlights only certain claims about the most accurate way to understand the particular situations, experiences, conditions or activities. The position of the researcher in terms of the data and the researcher's values, norms, and institutional constraints shape the ways that texts are read, interviews are coded, and research participants' reports are represented in the writing up of research data (Mauthner & Doucet, 2003).

The position of a researcher is also related to a theoretical lens within which a research study is undertaken. As discussed in the previous chapters, my epistemological position, which is a social constructionism perspective along with CHAT, has guided the analysis of data. There are also practical issues such as duration (three years) or the use of software (Nvivo), which may influence interpretation and it is important for a reflexive researcher to acknowledge them. Consequently, the data analysis process has been shaped by the interplay of social and personal interactions with epistemological, ontological and theoretical underpinnings (Mauthner & Doucet, 2003).

My assumptions as a researcher might also be sources of bias and unreliability. I acknowledge that the impact of my assumptions could affect the data analysis process. However, I attempted to minimise the effects of my personal opinions by relying on a systematic and rigorous process of a qualitative research design. Indeed, there were issues which could make the interpretation biased. The potential for this to happen was ever present in the data analysis process and the writing of this thesis where I remembered my own experiences as a student

teacher and as a teacher educator. However, I relied on critical judgement and systematic and analytical skills to keep my own experiences out of the data analysis as far as possible.

The issue of power relations between the researcher and the researched is a potential source of unreliability (L. Cohen, et al., 2009). As stated earlier in the thesis, I had worked as a teacher educator in the teacher education program studied, and the participants of the study had been either my students, colleagues or my supervisor at the time when I worked there. Consequently, some respondents may have provided inaccurate data that they considered appealing to me and when such data were analysed it did not reflect the actual experiences of research participants. However, I relied on my knowledge as a teacher educator and my skills as a qualitative researcher to bridge the power relations with the participants.

Observations may also be a source of bias whereby those being observed try harder to behave differently because they know they are part of a study (L. Cohen, et al., 2009). This may also be due to the pressure caused by the presence of a researcher in the classroom. I attempted to minimise this by also asking research participants questions before and after the observation sessions.

In short, reflexivity has been used in the data analysis process as a tool to maintain reliability and trustworthiness of the study. In the next section, I will provide a reflexive account on the practical issues of data analysis and interpretation. The section explores in detail the methods and strategies used to analyse the data. Coding and the activity system analysis methods will be explained in detail.

6.4 Data analysis strategies

The analysis of the data considered three planes at a macrolevel: SLTE at a national level in Chile, the affordances and constraints of a specific SLTE program in Santiago, and the lived experiences of a group of pre-service teachers in the teacher education program. These planes of analysis were considered as they are inseparable and mutually constituting comprising activities that became the focus of analysis at different times, but with the others necessarily remaining in the background of the analysis (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). This approach is inherent to a study with a CHAT perspective in order to provide a holistic and synthetic examination of the data.

In the following chapters, findings will be presented zooming into one plane and blurring out others. The interplay of the planes will become apparent in the findings as I established relationships between the macro level of the activity and the lived experiences of the participants. This is done to make clear the personal, interpersonal and institutional planes regarding the activity of learning to teach EFL in Chile.

Figure 6.1 below shows the interplay of the different factors shaping the activity of learning to teach EFL.

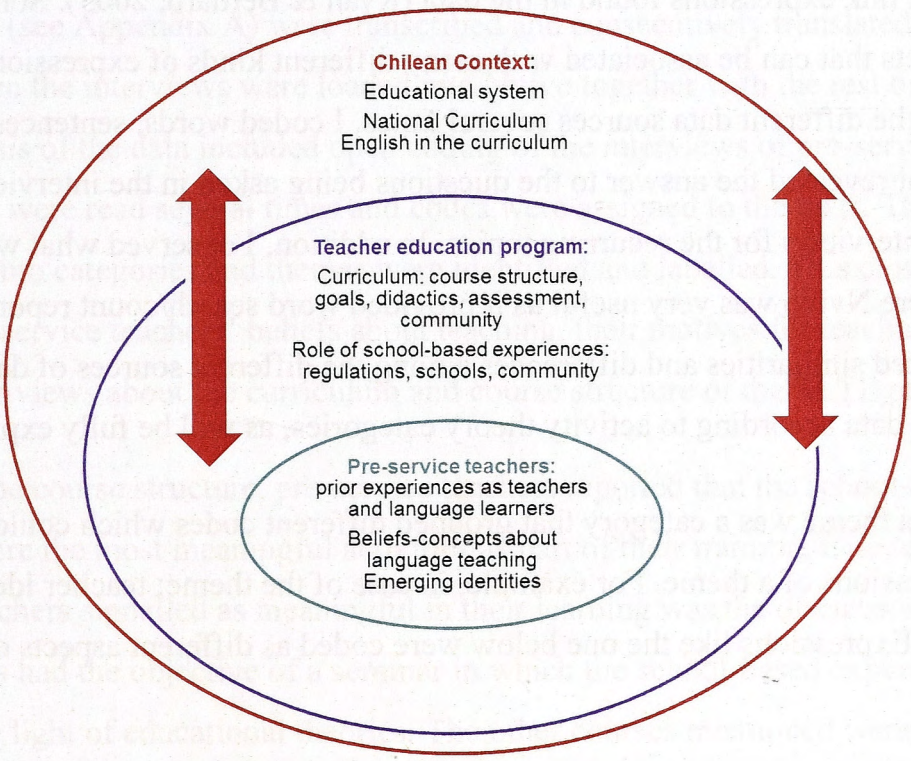

Figure 6.1: Planes of analysis

As detailed in Chapter 5, data were collected in the settings of the activity of learning to teach English in a Chilean SLTE program. The activity setting is understood as the environment where participants are bound together by the actions in which they engage (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). Thus, the settings were the SLTE program at a Chilean university and the schools where the pre-service teachers did their practicum.

Two strategies were established in the data analysis process. First, the data were thematically coded, that is, the data were analysed identifying themes and categories. As Charmaz (2003) suggested, open coding allowed me to answer these questions:

What is going on?

> What are people doing?
>
> What is the person saying?
>
> What do these actions and statements take for granted?
>
> How do structure and context serve to support, maintain, impede or change these actions and statements? (2003, pp. 94-95)

The codes identified in the data were grouped into themes. These themes are abstract constructs that link expressions found in the data (Ryan & Bernard, 2003). Some themes are broad constructs that can be associated with many different kinds of expressions in the texts. After reading the different data sources several times, I coded words, sentences, and paragraphs that revealed the answer to the questions being asked in the interviews. Then, I analysed the interviews for the recurring topics. In addition, I observed what was not apparent in the data. Here Nvivo was very useful as it provided word search/count reports very easily. Then I compared similarities and differences among the different sources of data. Finally, I also coded the data according to activity theory categories, as will be fully explained later.

I decided that a theme was a category that grouped different codes which could be taken as example expressions of a theme. For example, in case of the theme: teacher identity as a change agent. Expressions like the one below were coded as different aspects of teacher identity.

> I want to influence my students to be good citizens (S5_I).
>
> I realised that I have become an educator, not just a teacher of English, but someone who can make a difference in people's lives (S20_R).

Thus, open coding and the thematic analysis facilitated a first exploration of the data and the identification of the activity system as a whole.

The second strategy in the analysis process was to use the activity system analysis method. I did my analysis by identifying all the relationships between the participants and the other components of the activity (tools, community, rules, object, and outcome). I went through and looked for all the data relating to that relationship from the thematic analysis. After several readings, I was able to write a synoptic text, summarising everything I knew about that relationship, its origins, importance and so on. This drew on all available data, and was

shaped by a holistic and synthetic reading of the data using Engeström's triangular model to depict the activity system of learning to teach EFL.This means that the activity was described according to their object, tools, rules, community, and division of labour. Contradictions in the activity were also explored. This analysis mapped the complexities of learning to teach EFL revealing the conflicting objects of the activity.

6.4.1 Thematic analysis

Pre-service teachers' interviews

The interviews (see Appendix A) were transcribed and consecutively translated from Spanish to English. Then the interviews were loaded into Nvivo together with the rest of the data set. The first analysis of the data included open coding of the interviews of pre-service teachers. The interviews were read several times and codes were assigned to the texts. Then, the codes were grouped into categories and themes were identified and labelled. This close examination uncovered pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching, their motives for teaching, future goals, and their views about the curriculum and course structure of the SLTE program.

In relation to the course structure, pre-service teachers reported that the school-based experiences were the most meaningful activities as part of their training. One seminar that pre-service teachers signalled as meaningful in their learning was the discussion seminars. These seminars had the objective of a seminar in which the school-based experiences were explored in the light of educational theories. The other courses mentioned were the language classes, and methodology courses. The course structure was positively valued by pre-service teachers.

Table 6.1over the next page summarises the thematic analyses of pre-service teachers' interviews. It reveals the themes and codes identified in the interviews.

Table 6.1: Pre-service teachers' interviews thematic analysis

Data collection instrument	Themes	Codes
Pre-service teachers' interview	Motives into teaching	Interested in learning English
		Motivated to be a teacher
	Beliefs about teachers and teaching English	Good teachers are change agents; Becoming an educator
		Good teachers of English have a good command of English
		Good teachers command a wide variety of good teaching skills
		Good teachers do not focus on grammar
	Future goals	School teachers (at public schools)
		EFL teacher educators
		Other unrelated jobs (translators, hotel service, Spanish teacher in USA)
	Curriculum-course structure	Meaningful activities: school-based experiences, discussion seminars (3rd year), English, methodology classes, and some different courses
		Obstacles: heavy academic load, rules
		Experience as a student
		Theory vs. practice
		Knowledge appropriation
	School-based experiences Practicum	Seeing teacher's role
		To be a teacher
		A path to be a teacher
	Relationships with the SLTE community	Good role models
		Committed and hardworking classmates
		A supportive atmosphere

Teacher educators' and teacher mentors' interviews

Teacher educators' and teacher mentors' interviews were examined and open coded. The themes that emerged were about the type of teacher they are training, and purpose of the practicum and school-based experiences. Tables 6.2 and 6.3 summarise the thematic analysis of the interviews with teacher educators.

Table 6.2: Teacher mentors' interviews thematic analysis

Data collection instrument	Themes	Codes
Teacher mentors' interviews	Purpose of school-based experiences and practicum	Learning experience to get familiar with school reality and develop teaching skills
	Type of teacher they are educating	A functional English teacher
	Their roles in pre-service teachers' learning	Role models Assistants

Table 6.3: Teacher educators' interviews thematic analysis

Data collection instrument	Themes	Codes
Teacher educators' interviews	Expectations for pre-service teachers' future jobs	School teachers at public schools
	Type of teacher they are educating	Social change agents; English teachers
	Meaningful learning activities of the program	English classes; Critical thinking-reflection; Discussion seminars; Methodology classes School-based experiences Teacher education program community
	Obstacles for pre-service teachers in the program	Pre-service teachers' previous experiences as learners; Institutional constraints
	Purpose of school-based experiences and practicum	Crucial in learning to be a teacher. Opportunity to put knowledge into practice
	Their roles	Supporting role; Critical friends

As shown in the tables 6.2 and 6.3, teacher mentors and teacher educators had different views not only of the school-based experiences, but on the views of the type of teacher they were training. On one hand, teacher mentors expected pre-service teachers to behave and act as teachers; therefore they expected that pre-service teachers were adaptive to the different school conditions. On the other hand, teacher educators advocated for educating change agents, thus, they expected pre-service teachers to be able to enact what they had learnt at university and make a difference.

Pre-service teachers' self-reflection reports

Pre-service teachers' self-reflection reports were examined and coded into categories and themes. The most salient themes that emerged were: emerging teacher identities, learnings of the practicum, and affordances and constraints of the practicum experience. The strongest theme on these reports was about teachers' identity. Pre-service teachers reported two main emerging identities: a change agent and a language teacher. These different identities emerged as a complex development of their self as teachers in the situated learning experience of becoming a teacher of English.

Table 6.4: Pre-service teachers' self-reports thematic analysis

Data collection instrument	Themes	Codes
Pre-service teachers' self-reports	Purpose of the practicum	Reality shock; Opportunity to learn teaching skills; A chance to put in practice what has been learnt
	Learnings at the practicum	Teaching skills: use of whiteboard, voice projection, classroom management. Language teaching techniques: use of English, tasks, games, vocabulary strategies, grammar.
	Constraints	Teacher mentor; Unmotivated students; School curriculum
	Affordances	Good teacher mentor relationship; Flexible school curriculum; Positive atmosphere
	Emerging identities	A language teacher (I know English, I can teach English; I am a non-native speaker of English); An educator as a change agent (I can make a difference)

As shown in Table 6.4, pre-service teachers' reports revealed their struggles at the schools where they were completing their practicum. Pre-service teachers reported affordances and constrains of the practicum. The affordances were mainly given by capable teacher mentors, a sound relationship with the teacher mentor, and adequate support of the teacher educator, a positive school community and flexible school curriculum. Constraints were multiple, and the reports gave a wide range of examples of very complicated situations lived at the schools: inappropriate teacher mentors; clashes with the school administrative staff; violence; unmotivated students; and a very restricted school curriculum.

According to these reports, the setting of the school was crucial to develop a teacher identity. Not only was the teacher mentor signalled as either a contributor or an obstacle in the learning, but the school community as a whole. These reports were reflections about their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and challenges at the practicum. Therefore, these reports provided a great insight into the pre-service teachers' learnings from their perspective.

Observations-field notes

Field notes of the observations of pre-service teachers at both school and university were examined. The data were organised in terms of pre-service teachers' actions, roles, tasks and interactions with the community. As an observer-as-participant in the discussion seminars (eight weeks), my observations focused on the roles that pre-service teachers adopted as students in the classroom. I participated in the discussions held about diverse topics. I observed pre-service teachers' interactions among themselves, and the lecturer. In the discussion seminars, they adopted a "student" role, and though they were critical about some of the activities they had to do in the seminars, they accepted them. On some occasions, they were in the room, but they were doing other things.

At the schools, the observations focused on the pre-service teachers' actions at school. I shadowed their actions in that setting. These observations provided rich data in relation to how they behaved as teachers. I saw that the ten pre-service teachers observed were doing their practicum in a very wide range of schools. The different settings meant that each experience was very different for each pre-service teacher. In some cases, they could use the teachers' room to work; in other cases they were allocated separate locations. I also observed them teaching. The ten students observed attempted to follow a structured lesson in three parts

of the class, and speak English as much as possible. In some cases the teacher mentor was not in the classroom, and in some others, the teacher educator cooperated with the teacher in the activities.

As Table 6.5 below portrays, the observations of pre-service teachers both at the schools and at university contributed to my understanding of the particularities of the different settings. Also, these observations not only confirmed what the participants had reported about the activity, but also made my own interpretation of their actions.

Table 6.5: Field notes thematic analysis

Data collection instrument	Themes	Codes
Field notes 1 **Observations of pre-service teachers in discussion seminars (8 weeks)**	Actions	Engaged in the seminar (discussing, participating, reading, etc.) Disengaged from the seminar activities (marking tests, studying, playing computer games,)
	Interactions	Peer-peer; pre-service teachers-teacher educators
Field notes 2 **Observations of pre-service teachers at the schools**	Actions	Planning lessons, preparing class material, teaching, attending meetings
	Locations	Classrooms; teachers' lounge; others
	Interactions	With teacher mentor, other teachers, students, and peers.

Group discussion

Table 6.6 below shows the different themes generated from the group discussion. Purpose of the practicum, expectations, obstacles, and the university support were the main themes. Pre-service teachers saw the practicum as a necessary condition to become a teacher. They mentioned a significant number of obstacles, but they saw them as a preparation for their future work as a teacher. Classroom management was the skill that most pre-service teachers reported as necessary to gain as a result of the practicum. Pre-service teachers agreed that this skill is very important to achieve any learning in the classroom. The group discussion confirmed the pre-service teachers' individual interviews about their views of the practicum and provided a perspective of a shared understanding of the group.

Table 6.6: Group discussion thematic analysis

Data collection instrument	Themes	Codes
Group discussion	Purpose of the practicum	Reality shock Opportunity to learn teaching skills Training for resilience
	Expectations	Learn different teaching skill Understand the school community Be a competent teacher
	Constraints	School curriculum Teacher mentors Disruptive students Personal difficulties
	University support	Teacher educators with no knowledge about school reality Ineffective schools A heavy academic load

Document Analysis

As shown in Table 6.7 below, the curriculum, course structure of the SLTE program, and national policy for teacher training were examined. The documents were also uploaded to Nvivo. The examination of each document included several readings and an open coding was done of these documents. These documents were further analysed in order to answer, from an organisational point of view, the type of teacher they were educating and the formal instructional activities organised to achieve that goal. This examination provided a deep understanding of the national policy regarding SLTE. As detailed in Chapter 2, the Chilean national curriculum expects that universities have SLTE programs which comply with, on one hand, language proficiency outcomes, and on the other, with the type of teacher expected by the end of the program. At the same time, the examination of the selected documents provided a historical understanding of the specific SLTE program studied, its origins, and evolution, and the basis of its course structure. Course outlines were also examined. This also contributed to gaining an understanding of the course goals, specifically of the goals reported by the participants.

Table 6.7: Document analysis

Data collection instrument	Themes	Codes
SLTE program curriculum	Goals	Type of teacher; competences
	Organised activities in the SLTE program	Courses Activities
Course outline: practicum	Goals Activities	Competences Actions; tools
Course outline: school-based experiences	Goals Activities	Competences Actions
Accreditation policy for teacher education programs in Chile	Goals Activities History	Competences Actions
National curriculum of English	Goals History	Instrumental use; economic drive; skills Changes

In summary, coding the data was the initial stage of the data analysis process. This first exploration guided the research study from the data to creation of categories and from these categories to all the data pertaining to the categories (Saldaña, 2009). The themes and categories generated at this stage were the basis to examine how pre-service teachers learnt to teach English as a collective activity mediated by different artefacts. The following section describes and explains the activity system analysis method used in this study.

6.4.2 Linking data analysis and CHAT

I begin this section exploring the elements of the CHAT framework as they were used in the analysis and discussion of research data in the study.

Activity system analysis method

As noted in Chapter 5, using an activity system as the unit of analysis has generated a number of additional questions which consider the mediation of social and cultural factors in shaping the nature of learning to teach EFL in Chile. Thus, the study intends to identify key factors

which affect the participants' experiences to learn to teach EFL, explore how the activity is shaped (afforded and constrained) by these factors, and examine how contradictions within and between activity systems emerge and are resolved or unresolved. Therefore, the analysis used in this study examined the data to answer the following questions:

What is the activity system of learning to teach EFL?

What is the setting in which this activity is situated?

Who are the subjects of the activity?

What tools, rules, community, and division of labour are involved in the activity?

Do different subjects participating in the same activity view the activity and object differently?

Are there any interacting activities as part of the activity system?

What is the shared object of these activities?

What are the historical and cultural origins of the activity?

What systemic contradictions are bringing tensions into these activities?

How does one activity interact with another?

The answers to these questions will be outlined later in the chapter, and detailed and further developed in Chapters 7, 8 and 9.

As repeated throughout this thesis, learning is seen here as an activity which is a collective human co-construction. This social construction is a system which is "object-directed, historically conditioned, dialectically structured, and tool-mediated human interactions" (Russell, 1997 in Liaw et al., 2007, p. 1908). In other words, people are motivated to engage in activities because they have unsatisfied needs and perceive that the activity will meet these needs. The intentions that motivate people to participate in an activity are embedded within the meanings ascribed to the object (Jonassen, 2000; Yamagata-Lynch, 2003) and intentionality plays a key role in shaping how people relate to the object. Before engaging in an activity, people often have tentative goals which they use to orient their actions (Jonassen,

2000). In addition, once the subjects begin to transform the object into an outcome, "the intentions of the activity system are manifest" (Jonassen, 2000, p. 99). People draw upon their intentions to make sense of the object, and these intentions shape the transformation of the object into an outcome. In short, an activity is a "purposeful, transformative, and developing interaction between actors (subjects) and the world (objects)" (Kaptelinin, 2013). To draw the activities in this study I used Engeström's triangular representation (1987) as portrayed in Figure 4.2 (see p.81).

After open coding, the thematic analyses worked as a base to draw the activity of learning to teach EFL. In other words, I classified the themes as subjects, tools, object, rules, community, division of labour, and settings and how they related to each other.

The following table summarises the classification into the components of the activity. The categories summarised below helped me to construct the activity of learning to teach EFL in the Chilean context.

Table 6.8: Activity system analysis

Activity theory categories	Themes data set	Codes data set
Subjects	Pre-service teachers' experience as language learners	Years of learning English; Exposure to communicative language teaching (CLT); Exposure to grammar translation method
	Pre-service teachers' beliefs about language teaching and learning	Use of Spanish/English as the means of instruction; Learner centred activities; Purpose of teaching English
	Pre-service teachers' socio-cultural background	School background (private, subsidised, public)
	Pre-service teachers' motives into teaching	Language oriented; Teaching oriented
Object	Pre-service teachers' identity	Becoming an educator; Becoming a language teacher; Becoming a social agent
	Mastery of knowledge and skills Subject content knowledge Pedagogical content knowledge	Knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary; English competency; Knowledge of English pronunciation; Classroom management skills Language teaching skills; Knowledge about students; Lesson planning; Developing instructional material; Using ICT
	Personal future goals	English teacher at public schools; English teacher at tertiary level; Other jobs
Mediational tools	Curriculum Course structure School-based experiences	Lectures, workshops, seminars; Sequential school-based experiences Final year practicum
Division of labour	Pre-service teachers, teacher mentors and teacher educators' roles	Student roles; Teacher roles; Supervisors' roles

	Power relationship between pre-service teachers and teacher mentors	Decision-making process; Share of teaching tasks
	Power relationship between pre-service teachers and teacher educators	Allocation of teaching tasks; Supervision of teaching tasks
Community	Peers	Committed and hardworking classmates
	Teacher educators/Teacher mentors	Positive/negative role models
	Students	Motivated/unmotivated students
	School staff	Inclusive, supportive; Unhelpful
Rules	Explicit and implicit rules of the SLTE program Explicit and implicit rules of the school Professional Rules	Expectations as students and as future teachers School culture EFL teachers' expectations in Chile
Settings	Schools University	Classrooms, teachers' lounge Lecture rooms; workshops, seminars
Contradictions	Primary contradictions/individual	Individual pre-service conceptualisations of language teaching and learning are not aligned with the actual classroom reality
	Secondary contradictions/collective at the teacher education program or at the school	Pre-service teachers and the teacher educators. Pre-service teachers and the tools: the curriculum and the practicum
	Tertiary contradictions/collective. In relation to the object	Between pre-service teachers, teacher educators and teacher mentors' views of teaching
	Quaternary contradictions/collective-between the school and university settings	Between the two activity settings: the school and at the university

6.5 The activity of learning to teach EFL in the Chilean context

This section presents an outline of the outcomes of the data analysis presenting the activity of learning to teach EFL in a SLTE program in Chile, and its interrelated activities. This presentation gives an account of the analysis of the data from a CHAT perspective and outlines the findings that will be presented in the following chapters. This CHAT examination is based on the thematic analysis of the data that allowed me to identify the activity of learning to teach EFL, its components and relationships.

It is important to note that the lack of direct quotes in this section reflects the difficulty to use short excerpts to capture the complexity of the activity (Hopwood, 2010). The following account is the outcome of the analysis evidenced through the process of examining the interplay of the different planes and interpreting relationships in their full complexity rather than as represented in single utterances (to see data samples view Appendix G).

What is the activity system studied in this thesis?

As the focus of this study is exploring how pre-service teachers learnt to teach EFL in a Chilean teacher education program, the activity studied comprised learning to teach EFL from the pre-service teachers' perspective. Pre-service teachers enrolled in the teacher education program to obtain the qualification as a teacher of English in Chile. This qualification involves knowledge, skills, conceptualisations, values and attitudes of a teacher of English. As students in the teacher education program, pre-service teachers were engaged in different courses (phonology, grammar, language acquisition, teaching methodology) and participated in different school-based experiences and practicum which mediated their learning of teaching strategies contributing to the formation of teacher identity. Pre-service teachers also used their belief system to develop their conceptualisations about language teaching. These conceptualisations also mediated their learning and shaped their understandings of language teaching and learning.

What is the setting in which the activity of learning to teach EFL is situated?

This study is situated in Chile. This specific context offers affordances and constraints particular to this South American country. Therefore, as it was presented in Chapter 2, the Chilean educational system, the national curriculum for the English subject and accreditation

standards for teacher programs have an impact on the studied teacher education program and consequently shape the activity of learning to teach English for pre-service teachers. The findings presented in the following chapters will also include the national plane.

At the institutional level, the activity of learning to teach EFL took place mainly at two different settings: schools and the university teacher education program. Pre-service teachers attended the different courses that were part of the teacher education program. The program is part of the Faculty of Education in a private university. The schools in which pre-service teachers completed the school-based experiences comprised a wide range of schools, from public to private schools across Santiago. These two settings imposed different challenges for pre-service teachers who had to move from the university to schools and vice versa. The data revealed tensions between the schools and university's views regarding pre-service teachers' expectations as teachers. This will be clearly shown in Chapter 8 when the impact of the teaching practicum is discussed in depth.

Who are the subjects of the activity of learning to teach EFL?

The subjects of the activity studied are a cohort of final stage pre-service teachers. The data analysed showed that most of these pre-service teachers had studied at public or subsidised schools in Santiago. The majority of these pre-service teachers came from lower middle class backgrounds in Santiago. They enrolled in the teacher education program mainly interested in learning English. However, their level of proficiency when they started was very low. Most of them had learnt only some grammatical rules, and did not have any experience of either living or travelling to any English speaking country. They had been student teachers for four or five years at the time of the study.

What tools, rules, community, and division of labour are involved in the activity of learning to teach EFL?

As will be seen in the following chapters, from the data analysed I identified that the key mediating tools that pre-service teachers used to learn to teach were the practicum, and the curriculum of the SLTE program. The data reported that the practicum was a very powerful mediating tool to learn to teach EFL. In the teaching practicum, pre-service teachers confronted the reality of the teacher's work. They had to be flexible enough so that they could adopt the school culture, but also they had to make a difference. Pre-service teachers were pushed to function as fully formed teachers, competent in everything a teacher does: lesson

planning, material preparation, teaching, etc. This contradicted their status as student teachers.

Pre-service teachers were not alone in the endeavour of learning to teach, they were part of a community that supported and contributed to shaping their learning. Pre-service teachers belonged to two different communities: the university community and school community. Peers, teacher educators and teacher mentors contributed to shaping pre-service teachers' learning. Teacher educators and teacher mentors were experts in the field and experienced practitioners with the knowledge, beliefs and expectations which influenced the student teachers' learning.

Pre-service teachers as part of a community, followed, respected and operated within certain rules and norms that regulated the interactions they had with other members. These norms were embedded in the setting and also shaped the activity of learning to teach a foreign language. For example, as university students, they met the program's expectations and followed the rules regarding attendance, assessment and student behaviour. As teachers at the schools, they met the school's expectations and followed the school curriculum and respected school rules and policy regarding classroom management, student-teacher relationships, and punishment, for example. Pre-service teachers complied with the rules of both the school and the university. This was one of the causes of tension in the activity since in most cases; the schools had different and sometimes opposing views of teaching.

Engeström argues that division of labour captures the horizontal actions and interactions among the members of the community and "to the vertical division of power and status" (Engeström, 1987). Pre-service teachers adopted different roles and completed various tasks in the activity of learning to teach. For example, when they were at the school doing their practicum in the classroom they were supposed to become the teachers in the classroom. Tasks at school consisted of: lesson plan writing, material preparation, teacher's meetings, and actual teaching. While, when they were in the lecture theatre, they were considered students and they generally behaved as it was expected from a student point of view, in which the lecturer guides the process at that moment. Tasks were also different. As students of the language acquisition class, for example, the tasks assigned were typically: writing essays, reading discussions, and oral presentations.

What's the object of the activity of learning to teach EFL?

In activity theory, the object of one activity is understood as "concerns, they are generators and foci of attention, motivation, effort and meaning. Through their actions people constantly change and create new objects" (Engeström, 2009, p. 304). This implies that the object of the activity is not fixed, it is runway, and it changes according to different sociocultural factors. The object of the activity of learning to teach EFL is complex, and it includes different perspectives from the different participants of the activity. This is a complex object because it encapsulates the personal goals of pre-service teachers together with what is socially expected of them as teachers of English in Chile. The object comprises: knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs, values, and an identity as a teacher of English.

For pre-service teachers the object changed several times from the moment they enrolled into the program to the point they engaged in actual teaching at the schools. The data suggested that for pre-service teachers the object of the activity comprises not only the knowledge and skills about language teaching, but also to be able to be good educators. At the practicum, the ultimate goal for pre-service teachers was to learn different teaching skills to be able to teach English competently. Learning different teaching skills boosted their confidence, and pushed them to act as teachers. This illustrates how their identity as teachers was being formed. This will be explored in depth in light of the data in Chapter 8.

As noted earlier in the chapter, data included personal, institutional and national perspectives on the activity of learning to teach EFL. Like layers of an onion, the activity of learning to teach EFL did not stand in isolation, but intersected with, and was embedded within other activity systems. The activity of learning to teach EFL is closely related to the activity of teaching EFL as well as the activity of teaching to teach EFL. The analysis of the rich data revealed how these multiple activity systems were always at work and influenced how pre-service teachers learnt.

The analyses of the activity shows the multiple points of view, traditions and interests represented by the community present in the activity system. Multi-voicedness derives from the participants' diverging divisions of labour, histories, use of tools, and rules. Multi-voicedness is multiplied in networks of interacting activity systems and it is a "source of trouble and a source of innovation, demanding actions of translation and negotiation" (Engeström, 2001, p. 136). As will be explored in Chapter 8, the participants had conflicting

views towards the object of the activity situated at the practicum. For teacher mentors, the object of the activity was a demonstration of the abilities of prospective teachers as school teachers. Whereas for teacher educators, being competent EFL teachers was not enough, but they saw the activity as an education process in which pre-service teachers are being formed to become change agents at the schools.

Figure 6.3 below represents the different voices in the interrelated activities that comprise the activity of learning to teach.

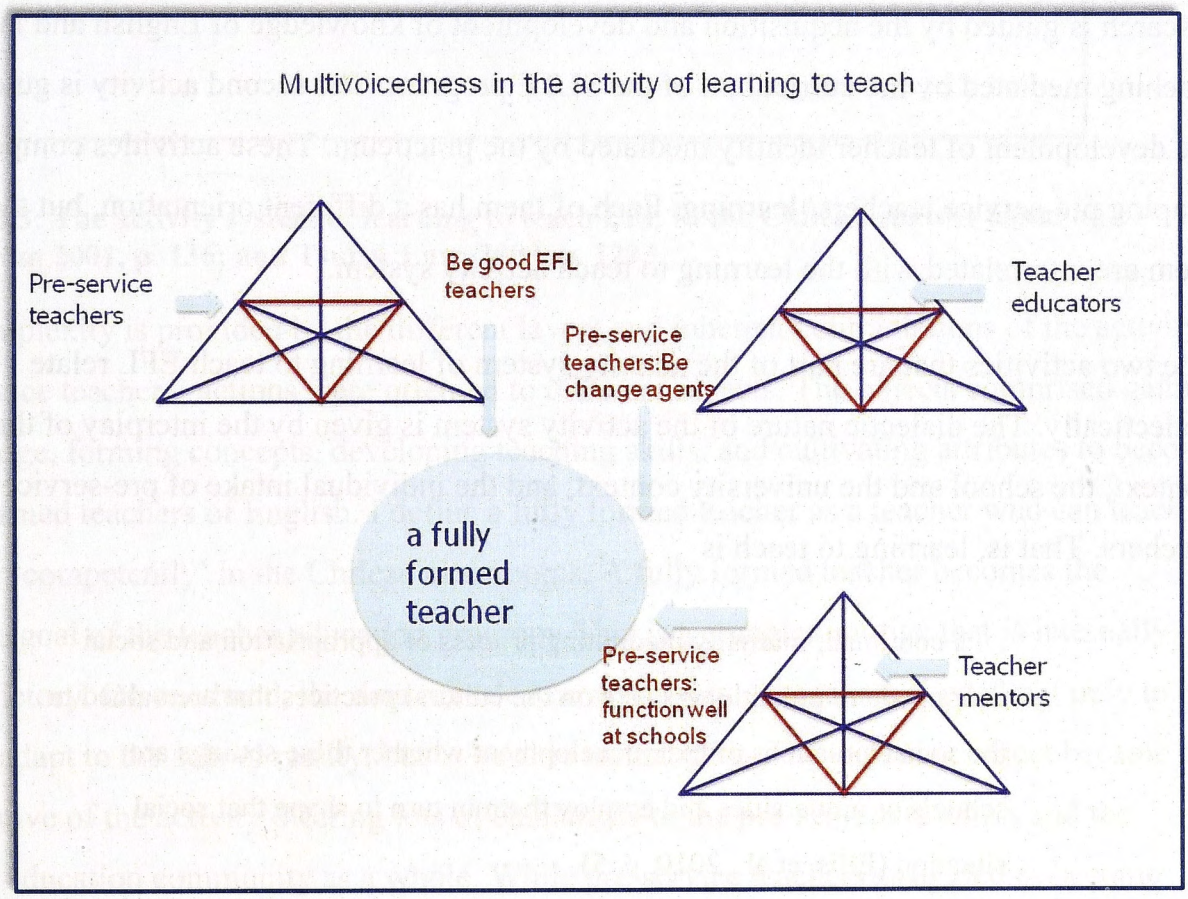

Figure 6.2: Multi-voicedness in the activity of learning to teach EFL

Collaborating activities within the activity system of learning to teach EFL

This section foreshadows the key findings of this thesis. It presents an overview of how participants in the study learnt to teach EFL. The data showed that pre-service teachers of English in the studied SLTE program in Chile learnt to teach in different ways. The study showed that pre-service teachers' learning was mediated by their beliefs about language and language teaching, by the course structure of the SLTE program, and by their teaching experiences at the practicum.

From the pre-service teachers' perspective, there are two interrelated activities within the activity system that help explain how pre-service teachers learnt to teach in a SLTE program in Chile. These activities involved personal, interpersonal, and institutional planes of analyses and affected one another. This finding is consistent with the studies of Tsui and Law (2007) and Luebbers (2010) that demonstrated the complexity of learning to teach in the contexts of the schools and teacher education programs. This will be discussed in detail in Chapter 9.

As the activity of learning to teach EFL was the unit of analysis, a complex activity system with different layers emerged. As shown in Figure 6.3, the first activity identified from the research is guided by the acquisition and development of knowledge of English and language teaching mediated by the curriculum of the SLTE program. The second activity is guided by the development of teacher identity mediated by the practicum. These activities compete in shaping pre-service teachers' learning. Each of them has a different orientation, but the two of them are interrelated with the learning to teach activity system.

The two activities that are part of the activity system of learning to teach EFL relate dialectically. The dialectic nature of the activity system is given by the interplay of the social context, the school and the university context, and the individual intake of pre-service teachers. That is, learning to teach is

> … a continual, mutually meditating process of appropriation and social action, where practitioners take on the cultural practices that are valued in the social situations of their development whether these settings are schools or universities and employ them in turn to shape that social situation (Ellis, et al., 2010, p. 5).

In summary, as shown in Figure 6.3 below, learning to teach EFL is a complex activity system.

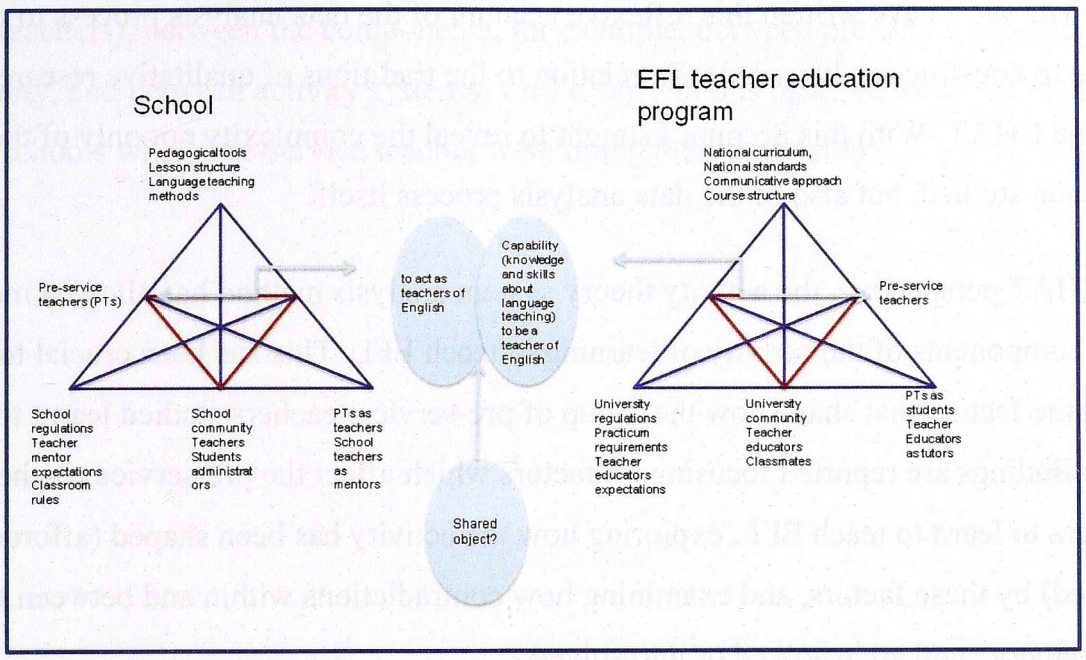

Figure 6.3: The activity system of learning to teach EFL in the Chilean context based on Engeström 2001, p. 136; and Tsui & Law, 2007, p. 1293.

The complexity is provided by the different layers and inherent contradictions of the activity. Pre-service teachers' actions were oriented to different objects. The objects comprised gaining knowledge, forming concepts, developing teaching skills, and cultivating attributes to become fully formed teachers of English. I define a fully formed teacher as a teacher who can teach English 'competently' in the Chilean classrooms. A fully formed teacher becomes the ultimate goal of the teacher education program. This is a complex motive that is internally contradictory. On one hand, the data revealed how pre-service teachers needed not only to be able to adapt to the school reality, but to be able to change it. This complex object became the true motive of the activity offering lots of challenges to the pre-service teachers and the teacher education community as a whole. While pre-service teachers struggled to become legitimate participants of the school community, they were also compelled to transform the social practices they were engaged in at schools. The contradictory nature of the object makes it "a moving, motivating, and future-generating target" (Engeström, 2011, p. 89).

6.6 Conclusions to the chapter

This chapter has described, explained and exemplified how the data analysis process was undertaken in this study. A thematic analysis and activity theory system analysis method were used. The strategies of the data analysed were described and explained with examples from the data. These strategies have proved to be successful in this study to make sense of a

complex data set. I have written this reflexive account of the data analysis process to contribute to constructing knowledge in relation to the traditions of qualitative research inquiry and CHAT. With this account I sought to reveal the complexity not only of the phenomenon studied, but also of the data analysis process itself.

From a CHAT perspective, the activity theory system analysis method has allowed me to draw the components of the activity of learning to teach EFL. This has been crucial to revealing the factors that shape how the group of pre-service teachers studied learnt to teach. Thus, the findings are reported focusing on factors which affect the pre-service teachers' experiences to learn to teach EFL, exploring how the activity has been shaped (afforded and constrained) by these factors, and examining how contradictions within and between the activities emerge and are resolved or unresolved.

The next chapters present the key findings of this study. Chapter 7 is an examination of how pre-service teachers engaged in the activity of learning to teach mediated by the curriculum of the SLTE program. In this sense, the curriculum is analysed in order to answer two questions: what is the type of teacher that the SLTE program is educating? And second, what are the formal learning opportunities that the program provides to pre-service teachers?

Chapter 8 explores another key activity in learning to teach EFL: how school-based experiences impacted on pre-service teachers' learning, specifically, how the practicum shaped pre-service teachers' learning. The activity here is given by the pre-service teachers' learning to teach English at school. The practicum is a compulsory activity in the program that mediates pre-service teachers' learning to be a teacher. In this sense, we see learning as inseparable from identity. Thus, learning to teach is seen as learning to be a teacher, i.e. "learning means to become, that is, to belong somewhere or differently than we do at the moment" (S. Lee & Roth, 2003).

Chapter 9 reports the inherent contradictions that emerged in the analysis of how pre-service teachers learnt to teach English in the studied EFL teacher education program. Contradictions were apparent on the data and its analysis illuminates the mutual constitutive planes of the learning activity and their potential expansive use for improvement of second language teacher education. Contradictions exist at various planes of the analysis: the national context, the EFL teacher education program and the lived experiences of the pre-service teachers; at different levels of the activity, within each component of the activity, within the subjects (pre-

service teachers), between the components, for example, between pre-service teachers and the community, and between activity systems, very clearly in this case, between the university and the schools where pre-service teacher were doing their practicum

Chapter 7: Exploring the curriculum of the SLTE program

7.1 Introduction

As argued in the previous chapter pre-service teachers' learning to teach EFL is a complex activity mediated by the curriculum of the SLTE program, and by their participation and engagement in the activity of teaching through school-based experiences. The data have shown that the main reason that pre-service teachers enrolled in the teacher education program was to obtain the qualification of a teacher of English in Chile. This qualification involves knowledge, skills, conceptualisations, values and attitudes of a teacher of English in Chile. As students in the program, they took different courses (such as phonology, grammar, language acquisition, teaching methodology, and literature) and participated in different school-based experiences and practicum which contributed to their learning, appropriating knowledge and skills, and developing a professional teacher identity.

The first exploration of the data through the open coding allowed me to identify the activity of learning to teach EFL. The themes and categories (see Appendix F for data samples) that were presented in Chapter 6 will be explored further in this chapter as the base to make sense of the activity situated at the university program. The focus of the analysis reported in this chapter is on how pre-service teachers learnt to teach EFL mediated by the curriculum of the SLTE program which in itself is mediated by Chilean educational policies. The interplay of the different planes becomes apparent in this chapter as the national curriculum together with the SLTE program studied and the lived experiences of the participants are examined. According to the data analysed, the curriculum appeared to be a key mediating tool in the learning activity. Pre-service teachers' engagement in learning to teach EFL was mediated by the course structure provided by the SLTE program.

The chapter is divided into four sections. Firstly, the national Chilean curriculum and teacher education standards are described and analysed to make sense of the studied teacher education program. This is done by a thorough analysis of the documentation. Then, the curriculum of the SLTE program is analysed in order to answer two questions: what is the type of teacher that the SLTE program is designed to educate? And what are the formal learning opportunities that the program provides to pre-service teachers? These questions are used in

this report as they guide the discussion towards the object of the activity and the mediational tools used in the activity of learning to teach EFL.

The last section of this chapter is devoted to exploring how pre-service teachers appropriated theoretical and practical tools to teach English provided through the curriculum of the program. The reported findings will be presented in the form of descriptions, direct quotes and interpretative comments. The data used to write this chapter considered the following documents: the Chilean national curriculum, national policy for teachers' standards, the SLTE program's curriculum; interviews with pre-service teachers, teacher educators, and pre-service teachers' self-reflection reports.

7.2 SLTE: from global to national trends in curriculum

As discussed in Chapter 3 SLTE teacher preparation has traditionally been much influenced by the field of applied linguistics. Applied linguistics has provided the knowledge base regarding second language acquisition and teaching methods in connection to the nature of learning a second language. As shown in the research completed in the last two decades, this knowledge is not enough in language teacher preparation (Kumaravadivelu, 2012). Recent research on teachers' cognition, teachers' work, attitudes and self-development have contributed to a deeper understanding of the nature of teachers' learning going beyond the linguistic aspects. Therefore, contemporary SLTE programs need to incorporate not only linguistic content, pedagogic knowledge and skills, but also attitudes, and cultural and social factors that train teachers to be active agents at the schools. SLTE programs are challenged by a need to train teachers who not only respond to the needs of a globalised world, but also that can understand their context and the nature of teaching and learning (Kumaravadivelu, 2012).

According to the examined literature in SLTE, there have been three main dominating curriculum models (see Models of SLTE curriculum on page 48) a craft model, an applied science model, and a reflective model. However, there is a current tendency towards teacher education programs to base their curriculum on the development of knowledge and skills of future teachers rather than transmission of knowledge and application into classrooms. A developmental approach on teacher education aims at teachers prepared "for the contingencies of unforeseen future teaching situations" (Ely, 1994, p. 336). In Chile there has been a move towards a developmental model for teacher education as well (Ormeño, 2009).

Notwithstanding, a developmental model has encountered significant challenges to its implementation.

The following section will explore how contextual national factors such as standards and accreditation criteria have had a direct impact on the curriculum of the SLTE program studied.

7.3 Chilean national EFL standards

As discussed in Chapter 2, Chilean universities are autonomous and independent of the Ministry of Education. This means, that universities can offer different courses without the authorisation of any other institution (Montecinos, et al., 2011). However, in the case of teacher education programs, the programs have to meet dictated criteria in order to accredit their programs. These standards state specifications for the organisation of the program curriculum in four areas: the discipline area, the professional area, general preparation area and the field-based area (Montecinos, et al., 2011). The discipline area represents courses associated with content addressed by the national curricular framework and pedagogical content knowledge. The professional preparation area includes courses about student learning and development, assessment, curriculum, and related pedagogical issues. The general preparation area refers to courses related to the social foundations of education and courses specific to an institution's mission. The last area is field-based preparation, which includes a sequence of curricular activities that culminate with the student teaching phase, or, as I call it throughout this report, *the practicum*.

Together with the accreditation criteria, the Chilean Ministry of Education in 2000 dictated a group of competencies that teachers should achieve by the end of the program. Teacher education programs are obliged to achieve the development of competencies throughout their curriculum. These competences include responsibility, sensitivity and flexibility. Social, cognitive, instrumental and teaching competences are also included (Ávalos, 2005).

Teacher education programs have autonomy to decide the weight of each of the preparation areas and level of competencies achieved in their curriculum design. The studied program followed a five year structure commonly found in secondary education programs in Chile (see Chapter 2), and the analysed course structure showed that each course outline included a set of competencies aligned with the ones described above.

The dictated Chilean standards and competencies for teacher education programs have direct implications on their curriculum design. In the studied teacher education program, as will be seen later in this chapter, the course structure analysis showed a tension between having a good content knowledge and deep understanding of the subject matter, i.e. English and linguistic elements, and pedagogic knowledge, didactics and English language methodology.

Overall, the examination of the national standards and accreditation criteria for teacher education programs suggest that on one hand, national accreditation criteria on teacher education programs encourage programs to align their course structure following a developmental perspective. But on the other, a strong tradition on teacher training models, and contextual constraints, such as the non-existence of collaborative work between schools and universities, have perpetuated a transmission model.

7.4 The national curriculum for English

The national curriculum for English has also influenced how SLTE programs structure their courses. As described in Chapter 2, the current national curriculum for English is orientated to provide English to Chileans mainly to be able to access information and literature in English. Consequently, the national curriculum adopted an increasingly communicative approach to the teaching and learning of English. The most recent amendment of the curriculum was launched in 2009 and aimed at the development of the four skills, so that students can learn to communicate in English focusing on the message rather than the form (Ministerio de Educación, 2009a). Consequently, the amendment stated goals, contents and functions to develop listening, speaking, writing and reading in English.

Another very important change introduced in the national curricular amendment was the alignment of the national curriculum of English with international standards. As discussed in Chapter 2, teachers of English are to have a minimum level of English equivalent to B2 (upper-intermediate). Though this standard is not enforced by the state, universities have taken it as an expected outcome of the programs for their graduates. As in the case of the program studied, course outlines and interviews with teacher educators confirmed that the standards regarding English proficiency expected for pre-service teachers when they graduate is at least the minimum required by the Ministry of Education.

In conclusion, the analysis of documents (see Appendix G) suggests that the Chilean national context poses possibilities and challenges to the SLTE programs to educate the teachers of

English that Chile needs. An overview of the accreditation criteria and the national curriculum suggests that universities are required to structure a curriculum to train a teacher who knows the subject content, and knows how to teach it and to whom. In other words, the SLTE program should organise the curriculum in such a way that prospective teachers of English master the language enough, and consequently, they can teach it communicatively to young Chileans. Although this appears a straightforward task, it represents a complex and multi-layered mission.

The next section presents an analysis of the curriculum of the studied SLTE program. This is the second plane of analysis which will reveal the particularities of the teacher education program studied.

7.5 The SLTE program studied

In light of the global and Chilean teacher education curriculum context, this section examines the curriculum of the SLTE program studied (see Appendix G on page 293) in this research project. I examined the curriculum of the program following Wright's (2010) understanding of what a SLTE curriculum should answer for, focusing on the program's goals and the instructional practices offered to the pre-service teachers.

1. What is the type of teacher that the SLTE program is preparing?
2. What are the instructional practices or formal learning experiences that the program considers for pre-service teachers?

This examination is done through the following questions. These questions would help me answer one of the secondary research questions: how did the curriculum of the SLTE program mediate pre-service teachers' learning?

What is the type of teacher that the SLTE program is preparing?

The analysis of the documents: program goals and its course structure reflect that the institutional discourse is directed to educate professionals that are socially committed to Chilean society. The SLTE program as part of a Catholic university intends to train a socially committed teacher who would contribute to end inequality in Chilean society.

To understand the reasons underpinning the goals of this program, it is necessary to examine its origins and history. As observed in the justification of the program document (see p.293),

the SLTE program was founded in 2004 and started to function in 2005. It was born as a response to a national need for teachers of English and the university's mission. The SLTE program studied became operational as a response to: 1) the shortage of teachers of English, especially at primary schools, and 2) a new national policy towards better standards for graduate teachers of English. In this context, the program was founded with the commitment to offer a course which educates future teachers with a proficient level of English as well as with the necessary methodological skills to be able to teach the language to both children and teenagers. Having that as a broad framework, the documentation of the program offers five operating objectives:

1. To train a teacher that can work in both primary and secondary levels. To train a highly qualified teacher who is able to implement the national Chilean curriculum.

2. To train a teacher that is a responsible citizen and encourages tolerance, respect and equity in his/her teaching.

3. To train a teacher committed to his/her professional development. To educate a teacher who is aware of the current methodological trends in the disciple, reflective of his/her practice, and open to constant dialogue with the school and academic community.

4. To train a teacher that knows ICT and is able to use them well for teaching purposes.

5. To train an autonomous teacher, a critical thinker able to educate integral individuals. A teacher who is open to new cultures without losing his/her own identity.

These five goals suggest that the program seeks to train a teacher of English who is qualified to teach English to children and teenagers at both levels: primary and secondary. The documentation suggests that these future teachers are being empowered through the program so that they can make necessary changes in the curriculum they have to enact at the schools. Regarding language teaching, the program states that it sees the learning of a foreign language as a tool for social change. The program expects that these future teachers acquire a good command of the language to use it in the classroom as a vehicle to contribute to the education

of responsible citizens. The SLTE program discourse is very strong regarding the social commitment that they expect from their future teachers. Words such as *poverty, inequality, social justice, critical thinkers,* and *responsible citizens* are highly repeated in documents such as: the course structure, and corresponding course syllabuses and outlines (p.286).

The course structure

The teacher education curriculum is based on a teacher training model emphasising the acquisition of knowledge and skills to perform adequately in Chilean classrooms. The program's main goal is to form educators who can educate a younger generation in fundamental Christian values and mastery of the English language.

The SLTE program contains around 44 compulsory courses, plus the school-based experiences. Tables 7.1 and 7.2 summarise the way they are organised. The first two years are focused on the provision of language classes aimed at the acquisition of English. These two years also aim at providing foundational knowledge of philosophy and education.

Table 7.1: Course structure overview of the first two years of the program

Area	Objective	Courses
Background knowledge in philosophy and humanities	To develop reflective practice and critical thinking	General philosophy, general psychology,
Intensive English language classes (more than 50 per cent of the hours)	To master English at a minimum of B1 level	English 1 to English 4 (speaking, listening, reading, writing)
An introductory approach to education	To know the Chilean school reality and consolidate future teachers' motivation into teaching	Chilean education history, educational theories

The next three years is structured in five areas, three are related to English as the pre-service teachers' specialisation and one is devoted to the professional and pedagogical development as future teachers of English. These three years are characterised by the sequential inclusion of school-based experiences and the accompanying seminars and methodology classes. The professional development takes a more crucial role mainly in the last year.

Table 7.2: Course structure overview of the last three years of the program

Area	Objective	Courses
English language	To master English at a C1 level	English 5 to English 8
Linguistics	To know about the English language	Grammar, lexicon, phonetics and discourse analysis
Culture and literature	To know about the culture and literature of English speaking countries	Culture and civilisation, American literature, English literature
Methodology and school-based experiences (second in term of numbers of hours)	To know and apply updated foreign language methodologies in the classroom	Language teaching methodologies 1 to 4, school-based experiences and the practicum
Pedagogic and ethical knowledge	To develop flexibility, adapting to student capacities and being responsible for student results, as well as being open to change in the content and form of teaching ethical competencies	Developmental psychology, ethics, discussion seminars, research action project

From the analysis of the written curriculum, and course structure of the program (see Tables 7.1 and 7.2 above), it is apparent that this curriculum is aligned with the accreditation requirements and national standards described in the previous section (see also Chapter 2 for more detail). The curriculum shows a clear organisation, with courses aimed at the provision of the subject content knowledge to prospective teachers, and providing them with the necessary tools to enable them to teach English in different school contexts. However, as it will be seen through the participants' voices, the subject knowledge and pedagogic knowledge areas were in constant tension to gain supremacy in the curriculum.

The previous sections have presented the macrostructure represented by Chilean national standards and has evidenced how the written SLTE program curriculum has been designed to comply with the Chilean required standards. The next subsection explores how participants' experiences have been shaped by the SLTE curriculum. The exploration is done with a focus on the participants' view of the intent of the teacher education program in order to elucidate the object of the activity from the participants' perspective.

Participants' perceptions of the SLTE program

The following section explores the participants' views of the SLTE program, specifically, it reports on the findings regarding the intent of the SLTE program, and the most meaningful curricular activities of the program from the teacher educators, and pre-service teachers'

perspectives. This examination is based on the thematic analysis (see thematic analysis categories on p. 128-129). This analysis provides us with an insight into how the curriculum is understood by the participants.

Teacher educators' perceptions

The analysis of the teacher educators' interviews (see Appendix F on p.283) report that most of them firmly believed they were educating a teacher of English who is going to work in public schools. The majority of teacher educators identified that they expected most of their graduates to be working at under-resourced schools. They explained this phenomenon as part of the social commitment they had been developing in them and a great personal desire to be change agents. Teacher educator 7's quote is a typical example of teacher educators' views on the future of their graduates.

> I think that most of our graduates are going to work in the public sector. **They do want to change the system**. They are so willing to do it (TE7, I).

Most teacher educators reported that they expected their graduates to be change agents at the schools. It became apparent that teacher educators not only sought that their graduates applied what they had learnt at university, but also that they become part of the school community and make changes in that context. Teacher educators somewhat either ignored the school reality or they saw these future graduates as heroes who could make changes by themselves in a short period of time. This challenge of enculturation is not straight forward, it requires not only time, but lots of skills and a powerful teacher identity that allows them to work professionally and make decisions of their own regarding teaching and learning. As seen in the quote below, teacher educators acknowledged that Chilean classrooms needed change and the ones called to make the changes are their graduates.

> **A teacher aware of the school reality, critical**[14], able to be part of that and not be consumed by the system, but on the contrary be able to change it (TE5-I).

[14] Bolding in data excerpts has been used for emphasis as it was coded in the analysis in this thesis.

The data analysis suggested that most teacher educators had a clear idea of their graduates as change agents in the public school sector. The data also showed that they had clear expectations regarding the knowledge base of their graduates. One of the categories identified in the data was knowledge base (see Chapter 6). This category coincides with one of the current concerns in SLTE which relates to the type of knowledge teachers should construct in a SLTE program (See Chapter 3).

Knowledge base

Regarding the discipline, most teacher educators expected that their graduates were competent teachers of English. The teacher educators reported that they expected their graduates to have a good command of the English language. Most of them reported language proficiency as the most important feature for a teacher of English. Teacher educator 6 emphasised that mastering the English language is the most important aspect for a future teacher. This implies that the knowledge base of a future teacher must be predominantly given by the English language proficiency.

> **English is everything** for a future teacher. It's too important (TE6-I).

As discussed in Chapter 2, Chilean school reality seems to be that teachers of English hardly ever speak English in the classroom (Abrahams & Farías, 2009). The apparent cause for the lack of use of English in the classroom in most cases is that the teacher's level of English is very low. Teacher educators wanted graduates that teach English in English, and again, they expected their graduates to overcome the implied challenges that the implementation of this might involve. As teacher educator 8 points out, the intent is that pre-service teachers not only master the language, but can use it in as a means of instruction in the classroom. This implies that the knowledge base should include not only subject matter knowledge, but pedagogic knowledge as well.

> **And speaking English while teaching**. That is something not all teachers do, then I always ask them [pre-service teachers] how much of the lesson is spoken in English, and I ask them to try, to try to speak in English. I don't want them to say "It just didn't work", I want them to insist, insist, insist. **I don't want them to get down because of the environment,** because there are many students that don't want to learn English, or that the school teacher doesn't speak English… (TE8-I).

As I asked teacher educators their views regarding the knowledge base of the prospective graduates, they were emphatic about English being the core, but also that English is a language which would allow them to influence students' lives. As it was stated at the beginning of this section, teacher educators reported that they were training not only good teachers of English, but also teachers who were change agents. Teacher educators showed high expectations for their graduates. They expected to educate a fully formed teacher of English, a teacher who goes beyond just teaching English. This view can be clearly seen in the following quote from teacher educator 3.

> The profile of our students is very different to the expected outcome. **We expect a professional who is very good at the discipline**, teaching English, but also **we want other traits that go beyond English.** We want a free thinker, critical, a change agent (TE3-I).

Another aspect where teacher educators expected their students to do well is regarding the structure of the lesson. Most teacher educators mentioned a specific language method they expected their graduates to use: the PPP language method[15] (Harmer, 2009) that was taught at the language methodology classes. According to that model, a lesson is structured in at least three clear parts: presentation, practice and production. Teacher educator four's quote is an example of the many references found in the data related to this class structure. This teacher educator is confident that pre-service teachers have a full command of the PPP method as part of the core of the acquired knowledge base.

> **Our graduates know perfectly well the parts of a lesson: pre-while, and post**. They usually criticise school teacher lessons because they do not follow that pattern (TE4-I).

The analysis of teacher educators' interviews evidenced that most teacher educators perceived the intent of the curriculum of the program as a training of teachers of English who could be change agents at the schools. Notwithstanding, the English language was signalled as the core of the program.

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[15] Although pre-service teachers of this study have been trained to use the PPP method according to Harmer (2009), this teaching strategy dates back to the mid 20th century when PPP became the preferred teaching sequence for structural methods (Criado, 2013).

Pre-service teachers' perceptions of the goal of SLTE program

The stated curriculum aims outlined in Tables 7.1 and 7.2 above were reflected in interviewee comments about the goals of the teacher education program. For most of these pre-service teachers, teaching was seen as a social mission understood as a teacher who can help other people, influence people's lives, and shape students' character. The quote below is saying that *a teacher is a teacher who makes a difference*. This pre-service teacher acknowledges the subject matter as important, but she signals that educating people goes beyond the subject. This was characteristic of an important number of pre-service teachers' interviews.

> **But I'm not just teaching subjects but educating people**. That is crucial to me. You have to say "I'm not educating you in order to make you able to speak English in no time. No, **I'm educating you to make of you a good person who is also able to speak English**. I think of you as an individual and I'll do anything to help you to become…" I can't be Superman, obviously, but I can do my very best to reduce the number of delinquents, to change the world (S1-I).

As pre-service teachers reflected on the type of teachers they are becoming, the discourse as change agents became apparent. From the interviews and self-reflection reports most of the pre-service teachers stated that being an educator is more important and relevant than a teacher of any discipline. This becomes evident in the following quote.

> Whatever subjects a teacher is teaching, either math, history, or anything, **one is first a teacher**, and then your "last name" (S4-I).

Throughout the interviews with pre-service teachers, it was also very easy to appreciate how the curriculum has been highly successful in developing teachers with high aspirations. The quote below shows a self-critical teacher, someone who is aware of the teaching activity as an ongoing development. This reflects a teacher who aspires not to accommodate to an imposed reality.

> **I want to be a good teacher**, not just a teacher (S10-I).

Regarding the goals of the program, pre-service teachers agreed with teacher educators. They saw themselves as teachers with a mission to change the bad social practices at the schools.

Pre-service teachers' perceptions of knowledge base

The data set strongly suggested that pre-service teachers saw the curriculum as a tool that had allowed them to learn English above everything else. Though pre-service teachers acknowledged the fact that they had learnt a great deal from numerous significant disciplines, represented in the different subjects of the course program such as psychology, educational theories, and child development, they identified the acquisition of English as the core of their learning in the program. This finding is coherent with the literature regarding teachers who are non-native speakers of English and demonstrated in recent studies such as the ones by Sakamuto (2004) Beckett and Stiefvater (2009) and Lee (2010) that have shown how non-native teachers of English value language proficiency as the most important characteristic of a teacher of English.

> Well, I have learnt lots of things here, but **what I have learnt the most is English**. Though my English is not perfect, it is definitely my strongest (S1-I).

Although pre-service teachers recognised their progress in the language, some of them still felt they needed to continue learning. Furthermore, they reported a great concern and lack of confidence or low self-esteem about their level of proficiency in English. Most pre-service teachers reported that their English could be better. Some of them even thought about taking up English classes when they graduated.

> I couldn't speak any English at the beginning, and **the progress I have made is amazing, however, I still make mistakes**. I guess when I graduate I'll take a course to improve my speaking. I need to improve my English to be a good teacher (S4-I).

These perceptions coincide with the literature regarding non-native teachers of English who usually show problems of self-confidence regarding the language used (Kamhi-Stein, 2009). This lack of confidence impacts directly on teaching, and in some cases, this can be related to teachers not using the target language.

Another recurrent theme in the data set regarding knowledge base was the skills of using English as the means of instruction in the classroom. This was evidenced in the interviews and reports. Pre-service teachers commented that they had learnt English in English, and they aspired to do the same as teachers.

> **Learning English here has been awesome**. I remember the first classes of English that I didn't understand, and could not respond. But by mid-year, I understood everything, and I could speak some English. **If I learnt without Spanish, my students will be able to, as well** (S6-I).

The analysis of the interviews also suggested that pre-service teachers acknowledged that the role of grammar in the English class is peripheral. The curriculum had a strong orientation to a communicative language teaching method and a task-based approach. Most pre-service teachers supported that they had learnt that teaching English goes beyond teaching grammar and more on the development of skills or on communication.

> **We have learnt English for communication**. Especially at the beginning, we did lots of role-plays, projects and fun activities. Our English classes haven't been focused on grammar at all (S10-I).

Pre-service teachers' reflections on the type of teacher they were becoming and their views regarding the knowledge base they acquired reflected an alignment with the written curriculum of the program and the teacher educators' views. This implies that pre-service teachers saw themselves as teachers with a solid knowledge base in English as well as change agents at the schools.

What are the formal learning experiences that the program considers for pre-service teachers?

As discussed earlier, the SLTE program's goals sought to train a teacher of English, who is critical, socially committed, and who is qualified to teach English to children and teenagers at primary and secondary levels. To achieve these goals the program has designed a course structure which has elements of a developmental model, but mostly has adopted a training model. On one hand, the course is structured with a significant number of teaching practices, and on the other hand, with an important number of lectures and workshops to provide the necessary knowledge to be applied as a prospective teacher.

The learning experiences provided by the SLTE program included a variety of formal learning experiences. My observations and the analysis of course syllabi reported that the courses varied not only in terms of the discipline, but also in their mode of delivery. Theoretical courses on psychology, education, history; linguistics and so on (see The course structure on

page 155) were lecture-based. That means that there was usually a lecture about a specific topic, readings, and pre-service teachers completed related assessments.

The English classes were across the five years of the program. Therefore, the English classes became the space where they spent the most hours. These classes were subdivided into speaking, listening, reading and writing sessions. During the first two years, pre-service teachers had English twice a day. During the last three years, they continued having English every day, but only once a day. The lessons were usually hands-on workshops. Communicative and task-based approaches were used in most of the English classes; therefore, typical tasks included role-plays, games, task-based projects, and sketches.

The program also provided a sequential number of school-based experiences and practicum. They comprised eight school-based experiences during the third and fourth years. The two teaching practices took place in the final year of the program. Each school-based experience ran for approximately 13 weeks. The activities that pre-service teachers did in each experience varied from observation to actual teaching. The first experiences were characterised by attending an assigned school and undertaking critical observations of the school system, teachers' work and students learning. The last experiences included more classroom work helping the school teacher of English or teaching. The practicum consisted of taking up the work of a teacher of English at an assigned school. The experiences at school were supervised by a teacher educator. Each teacher educator usually supervised between ten or twenty pre-service teachers.

The school-based experiences were in parallel with language methodology classes. The language methodology classes included both theoretical and practical issues regarding teaching English. Pre-service teachers were introduced to different language teaching methods, and they were expected to apply these methods and techniques in microteaching, and also in their experiences at the schools.

Another interesting mode of teaching was the one provided in the discussion seminars. The discussion seminars were workshops which were paralleled to the school-based experiences. Participants highlighted these seminars as excellent not only for the content knowledge, but also for the class methodology. This consisted of discussions about educational issues grounded in practical experience. The experience came from both pre-service teachers' at the schools, and related literature. Pre-service teachers were co-constructors of the curriculum of

that class. Most pre-service teachers commented that the first seminar was crucial for their learning to be a teacher. This will be discussed further in the next section.

The next subsection explores participants' perceptions on the course structure. The focus is given to pre-service teachers' experiences as students in the program.

Meaningful learning experiences for pre-service teachers

Pre-service teachers reflected on the course structure of the SLTE program as this was raised in the interviews. They reported a high identification with the structure of the SLTE program. The analysis of their interviews showed a high level of satisfaction with the program justifying their decision to choose this program over another one. The analysis suggested that pre-service teachers viewed the course structure as a solid unit which combined English and education well.

> I think there is a **good marriage between teaching and English**, I mean, between **the education courses, and the school-based experiences**. **We go to schools and apply what we have learnt**. At the beginning I thought that it was just English, but by third year everything makes sense (S11-I).

Pre-service teachers valued the experiential learning of the program; they commented on the school-based experiences as the most meaningful learning experiences of the program.

> **The teaching practice experience in third year is also really good**. It allows us to see reality as such. It is not good to get to 5th year, do your final practicum and realise that this is not what you want to do. So here, we have teaching practice experiences from third year, and this is really advantageous. I think the school-based experiences are the most positive ones (S9-I).

Most pre-service teachers perceived the school-based experiences as meaningful not only as one way to encounter school reality first-hand, but as crucial for their becoming teachers.

> The school-based experiences have been favourable. **I notice my changes as a teacher with every teaching experience.** In the first one I was a bit shy because I was afraid of the children's opinion. They could laugh at my height, I mean they could have said things like "I'm taller than you and you come here to teach me things". Then it's rewarding

> when you get the attitude and you say "I'm not your friend here, I'm your teacher" and they look at you in a different way. And, as I told you, **there are kind of steps to follow in these teaching practices and you go from observing to standing before a class**. That is rewarding. I wouldn't change that for anything (S1-I).

Another key element of the program that most pre-service teachers identified in the interviews as meaningful in learning to teach was the discussion seminars. These seminars acted as support groups for pre-service teachers facing the sometimes shocking school reality. Pre-service teachers reported that these seminars were very meaningful because they were opportunities to discuss what they were going through at the schools, together with an understanding of the classroom phenomenon in the light of educational theories. Participants were asked to read various texts and they discussed them according to the experiences they were going through in their teaching experience practices. They brought up their beliefs, feelings and previous experiences into the discussion. This was an eye opener and a contributor to their construction of their knowledge as teachers.

> **I think that the discussion seminars was the most relevant subject in the program for me.** It made me understand what teaching is, and what the difference is between being an authority, I mean, being authoritarian and being a teacher. As a matter of fact you were encouraged to criticise, to be aware, and to think about things you never thought about before. Actually, we had to write an essay about what it takes to be a student and it made me think how schools deprive students of their voice (S4-I).

A recurrent theme that emerged in the dataset was the highlight of the third year of the program as crucial in their training. In the third year, pre-service teachers started with the school-based experiences, together with the introduction of language methodology and the discussion seminars. The course structure at this point took a more vocational and experiential learning approach. Most pre-service teachers reported their third year as a milestone in their career.

> In the end, **in 3rd year, I had a deep sense of what it means to be a teacher** - that struck me as something really **powerful** (S15-I).

Together with school-based experiences, pre-service teachers reported the practicum as crucial to their becoming teachers. It was seen as a necessary opportunity to develop teaching skills. The practicum experience will be elaborated further in the next chapter.

> **It is absolutely necessary to go through this (the practicum) to become a teacher**. Dealing with real situations, things you are not presented here at the university, the books, parents, school norms. It is also a way to put things into practice, all the things we have learnt at the university and put it into practice. Try new ideas (GD, May 2011).

It is also important to note that most pre-service teachers supported the sequential school-based experiences and the practicum as the capstone experience. They reported that despite the fact some school-based experiences were upsetting they could develop teaching skills that were useful as they did their practicum. This aspect will also be elaborated further in the next chapter.

Another meaningful aspect of the course structure reported by most participants was the number of hours devoted to learning English, especially at the beginning of the program. They reported that it was a huge achievement to have overcome the first two years. Pre-service teachers acknowledged that learning English was difficult, but motivating and engaging.

> **In the beginning it was challenging** because I knew English, or rather, **I knew basic English**, it didn't help me to get by in the beginning…but now my English is not perfect, **but pretty good. It is gratifying** (S4-I).

As observed earlier, some pre-service teachers confided that they still needed to improve their English. This is the reason why they criticise their English classes of the last two years of the program. They reported that the English lessons of the last years were more focused on educational topics rather than language oriented. Some were very emphatic and they said that they stopped learning English in third year. In this regard, some pre-service teachers showed a concern about their lack of confidence of their level of proficiency in English.

> **I have improved my English a lot, but I am not confident enough**. I'm always afraid of making mistakes in English because one wants to be good, but it's only a matter of practice (S1-I).

Even though pre-service teachers reported a positive view towards the course structure, they expressed their disagreement towards the heavy academic load, especially in third year. The increase of the academic load was given because in third year they started with the school-based experience. That experience required them to be at the school for two full days. The rest of the week they had to attend lectures and tutorial sessions for more than 20 hours at university. Pre-service teachers reported that that year was a huge challenge and in many cases the heavy academic load was a hard obstacle to overcome. Interestingly, while most students reported the heavy academic load as an obstacle, there were a few that saw this as a preparation for work life.

> **Another thing is the relationship between the teaching practice experiences and the subjects we have at uni**. In the first two years we had like four or five subjects. And we had time to read. It was relaxing. We started third year, and we had classes on Monday, Wednesday and Friday from 8:30 am to 6 pm and on Tuesday and Thursday we had to go to the schools to do our teaching practice. And we had group assignments and I don't know if they expected us to stay at uni till 10 pm or what, but thanks to technology we could do everything via Internet. Otherwise it wouldn't have been possible. **Our academic load was too heavy**. It changed heaps from one year to the next. In fact, a few students failed in third year because they were not able to cope with all the pressure. The first two years were relaxing. **The teaching practice is exhausting, third year is really hard**. You got home tired wanting to chill out, but you couldn't because you had to write two essays. So at that time… I used to get home at around 7:30 pm, have dinner in front of the computer, not with my family, I was only studying and I was absolutely stressed out. Many of my classmates had to go to therapy, others were sick with different issues and I suffered from irritable bowel syndrome (S4-I).

In summary, pre-service teachers' views on the course structure reflected positive perceptions of the curriculum about the balance achieved between language acquisition and language teaching methodology. Pre-service teachers regarded the school-based experiences and discussion seminars as key in their training as teachers of English. This coincides with the extensive literature pointing that school-based experiences are key in learning to teach (Atputhasamy, 2005; Legutke & Schocker-v. Ditfurth, 2009; Luebbers, 2010).

Language oriented classes and the significant amount of time spent learning English were highly valued by pre-service teachers. They acknowledged the fact that it was necessary to devote so many hours to learning English. However, they also disagreed with the heavy academic load that the course structure imposed on their third year. This again confirmed the strong belief that being a good teacher of English means to be proficient in the English language. Other courses such as language methodology, psychology, and applied linguistics were mentioned as relevant in their learning, but with much less impact than the ones mentioned above.

Teacher educators' views on course structure and learning activities

Most teacher educators reported that the acquisition of English was the most important element of the curriculum. As they reflected on the most meaningful activities of learning to teach, they stated that "English language was the backbone of the course structure" (TE4-I). This view coincides with their view that as a teacher of English you must be highly competent in English.

In this regard, teacher educators went further justifying the intense and large number of hours that the course structure allocated to the acquisition of English. They believed that it was absolutely necessary that such a high number of hours be included because the entry level of English is too low, and pre-service teachers' learning skills need to develop further so as to become teachers of English.

> …quantity of hours of English, and they have ten hours of English a week, and for our purposes that is fundamental. Pre-service teachers have got to have a significant number of English classes a week. **They come in so weak in English that that's why they need to have so many hours** (TE6-I).

In the same line, most of the teacher educators emphasised that language classes are also key for changing pre-service teachers' beliefs about language teaching and learning. As most pre-service teachers reported the majority of their own teachers at school did not speak English and their classes were grammar oriented. Teacher educators strongly believed that the language classes were labs in which they became positive role models for pre-service teachers. Teacher educators conceived that the way that pre-service teachers learnt English was crucial since they would transfer that to their teaching.

> I think we, the language teachers of the program, **are role models to our students.** We need to change pre-service teachers' hard disk regarding language teaching. Therefore**, I am not only teaching English to them, but I am teaching them a model of a teacher**... (TE1-1).

In relation to theory and practice, teacher educators reported that the course structure was well balanced and aligned with school reality. They emphasised the role of the school-based experiences as crucial for pre-service teachers' learning. They suggested that school-based experiences were a must for prospective teachers, and the main role of these experiences was to develop resilience and a professional teacher identity.

> School-based experiences correspond to the 40 per cent of pre-service teachers' activities in third year. These school-based experiences are meaningful for them, they learnt a lot. They write in their journal meaningful events, they problematise the school life, and reflect on possible causes and solutions. **They evaluate a pedagogical problem using the methodological concepts they have learnt here** (TE3-I).

Teacher educators saw that the curriculum aligned with the school classroom and they thought that the methodology classes were aligned with the school-based experiences. The content and activities of the methodology courses were designed to provide pre-service teachers with the necessary tools so that they could perform adequately at the schools. When analysing the methodology course syllabus, it was not very clear how this alignment was carried out.

Another element of the curriculum that teacher educators mentioned as a very meaningful activity was the discussion seminars. Teacher educators acknowledged the fact that the seminars allowed pre-service teachers to reflect on the school reality and their own practice. They also saw the discussion seminars as a catalyst for an integrated curriculum.

Most teacher educators saw the course structure as strength of the SLTE program. This strength is given by its integrated concurrent curriculum. Teacher educators saw very positively that the discipline, English, was provided together with didactics, and school-based experiences. The experiential learning approach was seen as crucial in the course structure together with English.

Drawing this together, from the analysis of the course structure and the participants' views of the curriculum, it becomes apparent a tension exists between the acquisition of English and

learning how to teach English. It became evident that there is a very strong concern about educating a teacher of English who has a good command of the language. Pre-service teachers enrolled in the program with very little knowledge of English; therefore, one of the big challenges that the program had to overcome was providing future teaches with the necessary learning opportunities so that they could acquire the language. Pre-service teachers went through the experience of learning English and learning to teach it at the same time. This is a very particular phenomenon because the subject content knowledge becomes the language itself, i.e., English. In this regard, this program has challenged the traditional existing views of the Chilean context (see Chapter 2), in which teachers are not only expected to know the language they are going to teach, but also, have a vast linguistic knowledge. In this sense, the program has taken a different path from the traditional syllabus. It has given a greater focus on how to teach taking an experiential learning perspective rather than a theoretical one.

The next section explores the mediating effect of the curriculum in the actual appropriation of theoretical and practical tools of the pre-service teachers studied. The focus is given to how pre-service teachers appropriated the knowledge mediated by the course structure of the program. This analysis reflects the interplay between the personal experience of learning to teach EFL and the curriculum of the SLTE program.

Pre-service teachers' appropriation of theoretical and practical tools

The chapter so far has presented the Chilean national curriculum of English and the SLTE program course structure, its aims, goals, subjects, and participants' views. This exploration has contributed to our understanding regarding the aim of the teacher education program and its formal learning opportunities. This section reports another plane of the analysis: how pre-service teachers appropriated knowledge by means of the curriculum of the program. First, I will discuss the tension between theory and practice and what I mean by appropriation in this thesis in the context of learning to teach EFL. Then, I will report on the different levels of appropriation according to the data analysis.

As discussed in Chapter 3, there is a vast body of research regarding the concern between theory and practice in teacher education programs (Grossman, et al., 1999; Hüttner, et al., 2012; Newell, et al., 2001). This concern is explained as a way to understand the reasons underpinning the misalignment of theoretical knowledge about teaching provided at university, and what is actually done at the schools. Although pre-service teachers and teacher educators reported that there was a very good balance between theory and practice in the

program, in terms of the blend between lectures, and school-based experiences, pre-service teachers struggled to apply teaching principles at the schools. The data suggested that while teacher educators wondered why pre-service teachers did not apply what they had been taught; pre-service teachers challenged teaching principles in the light of classroom reality. The different views reflect a different understanding of the activity itself.

The activity of learning to teach is a collective activity in which the settings mediate teachers' development (Newell, et al., 2001). In this sense, it is necessary to understand that learning to teach is not about the application of knowledge and skills acquired either in lecture rooms or as part of an observation apprenticeship, but a more complex activity in which social and cultural factors mediate their appropriation of teaching principles. The SLTE program designed a curriculum model to provide students with tools to carry out competent pedagogical practice. These tools referred to the knowledge and skills acquired in the active engagement and participation of university courses and school-based experiences. Thus, pre-service teachers received a *kit* with strategies and techniques about classroom management or vocabulary teaching, for example. These practical tools are based on theoretical principles of teaching and learning. Communicative language teaching principles is one example of a theoretical tool that was given to pre-service teachers as a framework that could be used as a heuristic on which to base their teaching decisions.

Consequently, how did pre-service teachers learn to appropriate either practical or theoretical tools for teaching? From a CHAT perspective, pre-service teachers appropriated pedagogical tools by actively engaging in the learning teaching activity as they transformed the knowledge they were internalising. This internalisation was shaped by the setting(s) in which the pre-service teachers were working (Newell, et al., 2001). Appropriation is understood in this thesis as a further aspect of internalization in a Vygotskian sense (Vygotsky, 1978). Furthermore, as Grossman et al. (1999) stated: "appropriation refers to the process through which a person adopts the pedagogical tools available for use in particular social environments (e.g., schools, pre-service programs) and through this process internalises ways of thinking endemic to specific cultural practices" (p. 15).

The next subsection attempts to answer the question of appropriation bearing in mind that the curriculum of the program has mediated this internalisation.

How did pre-service teachers appropriate practical or theoretical tools?

The analysis suggests that pre-service teachers appropriated knowledge as they engaged and participated in the different settings of the activity of learning to teach. In the university setting, pre-service teachers demonstrated their appropriation of concepts meeting the course assessment requirements. The demonstration of this appropriation was evident through my observations of them in class and also through their comments in interviews. However, as they started doing their practicum, they became participants of the school community. In this context, they struggled trying to apply theoretical and practical tools in their own classrooms.

From the data analysed, three levels of appropriation were identified. I adopted the following categories of appropriation using Newell's labels: *reflective-adaptive practice, partial appropriation, and teaching as telling* (Newell, et al., 2001). Reflective practice refers to the application of theory to new contexts. This also refers to the questioning of theoretical/practical tools as valid in their own contexts. This mode of appropriation reflects an understanding of the complexity of teaching. Partial appropriation refers to a partial application or understanding of theory into practice. Pre-service teachers were unsure or unconvinced of applying theory into practice. It also refers to a superficial appropriation of terms or discourse, but there is no real application; and teaching as telling refers to the application of some teaching principles as they were told to be used at university. This mode reflects neither questioning nor challenging the teaching principles. This level of appropriation shows a concern for "doing a lesson" fulfilling what is expected from them according to what has been told to them.

Reflective-adaptive practice

Some pre-service teachers showed a reflective-adaptive practice. Pre-service teachers were able to reflect on the implementation of some theoretical concepts in the light of the classroom. They applied theory in different contexts and they made it their own concepts. They were able to adapt teaching principles to the specific context. The reflection below represents his learning in terms of the relevance of adapting his teaching practice. This adaptive factor reflects a deeper understanding of what teaching is.

> **I learnt that no matter how well prepared you are for a class, anything can change it** .... I also learnt that sometimes strange situations are going to happen when you are having classes, but it is important to

> contextualise the problem, analyse it and come up with the simplest response (S11-R).

Pre-service teachers reflected not only on their practice, but also on the underpinning reasons of their decisions. This reflection demonstrates not only that the pre-service teacher was able to put into practice some theoretical concepts, but evaluate the results of the decisions made.

> The biggest challenge I had, and I think I mentioned previously, was to achieve learning. **My methodology is fun, interactive and motivational classes, and the big problem is to improve learning within all the fun**. But after many evaluations I found out that my students did much better because the type of assessment I applied was different. In a grammar focused test they do poorly but if I do a communicative assessment they perform very well in general. **Is that good? I think it is, because my classes are communicative, then the assessment is coherent and they actually achieved learning** (S15-R).

Context as a supportive school teacher mentor, a cohesive school community and a shared understanding of what teaching is contributed to a better appropriation of theoretical/practical tools. Most pre-service teachers that perceived their experience in the practicum as positive mentioned that a supportive school community made the difference. As pre-service teacher 17 points out, a supportive and open school culture allowed her to make sense of the teaching and learning process.

> There were many instances where I could express new methodological ideas. I do not mean that I created new strategies, I just came up with some and my teacher allowed me to put them into practice. **Such attitude, freedom let me made mistakes, but also succeed.** This outstanding up and down process made me see the relevance of what was happening. I was becoming an educator. This was the first time I was making my teaching practice real. But the best thing was that "the class" was my own class. **Such feeling of ownership made me grow up as a unique person, student but more than that as a professional**. Thus, I felt sure about what I was doing (S17-R).

One concept that was mentioned repeatedly by pre-service teachers had to do with what teaching means. The SLTE program had a very strong idea towards teaching as the contribution to change, and not the transmission of content. Consequently, the discourse of

the program emphasised this: English is just a vehicle that allows teachers to teach students to become good responsible citizens.

> The things I achieved with my class were really significant to me because **I achieve my aim which was to teach these kids some values as well, and I succeeded** (S26-R).

The above examples of the data analysed showed how some pre-service teachers appropriated some theoretical/practical issues in a reflexive/adaptive practice. These teachers used their agency and reflexivity to adapt and reflect on what they had learnt at university in the school context.

Partial appropriation

Most pre-service teachers' level of appropriation could be classified here, that is within the category of partial appropriation. Most teachers showed a certain level of appropriation of different theoretical/practical teaching principles. This is reflected in their practice and on their reflection on their practice. My observations and interviews confirmed this level of appropriation. Factors that pre-service teachers viewed as obstacles to them applying the teaching principles were mainly in relation to the school culture including school curriculum and norms. The quote of pre-service teacher 21 below reflects her awareness of being unable to implement a teaching principle because of her teacher mentor's style of teaching and type of assessment.

> I did not have the **opportunity to implement the method by Harmer**. Once I tried to do it, but my mentor teacher immediately told me that I would better explain the tense with all the conjugations, because they will get lost. **Thinking honestly, yes, they will get lost, because the way I teach is not the way they assess**. So I could not take the opportunity to make wonderful classes. Instead, I used the never-ending grammar method (S21-R).

Though there is reflection on how to use some teaching principles, the application is partially done or not fully understood. This is the case of the following pre-service teacher who reflected on her own teaching, specifically on the implementation of a practical tool used in efficient classroom management.

> In terms of weaknesses **I think the main problem was that I did not establish the rules at the beginning of the year**. This lack of rules sometimes gave me some problems because students did not know what I was supposed to allow and what not. **I think this is very important because if you tell your students the very first day what the rules for the class will be, they will know later what they can/cannot do.** One good strategy to give rules but without being authoritarian is setting the rules with the students, all together (S19-R).

Teaching as telling

The third mode of appropriation can be what has been called *teaching as telling.* This refers to a level in which pre-service teachers tried to implement any theoretical or practical tool ignoring the context. In other words, pre-service teachers taught according to what they were told at a university course without any major reflection or questioning of the teaching principle. The following quote of pre-service teacher 14 reflects her lack of critical thinking regarding the use of English in class.

> Perseverance is my strength as a teacher. **No matter what, I use English in my class even to tell them off.** Eventually, they will understand (S14-I).

The three modes of appropriation shown above, that is, reflective-adaptive practice, partial appropriation, and teaching as telling represent different ways of learning to teach English. Pre-service teachers constructed their understanding of teaching and learning a foreign language within the context of their engagement and participation in the activity. Thus, learning to teach EFL is a complex situated activity shaped by situational contexts, availability of tools, and their relationships with teacher educators and school teachers. These modes of appropriation cannot be considered a thorough stage model, but a heuristic to understand how these pre-service teachers learnt to teach. Moreover, this analysis reveals the situational, dynamic and conflicting nature of concept development (Smagorinsky, 2013).

7.6 The activity of learning to teach EFL mediated by the curriculum

As shown in diagrammed in Figure 7.1 below, the curriculum gave pre-service teachers the theoretical foundation to understand school and classroom reality. The curriculum also shaped their identity as teachers as well as giving them skills as teachers. This identity as a fully

formed teacher is a teacher of English who is able to teach English in English, communicatively, with a learner centred approach, and a critical thinker committed to social justice.

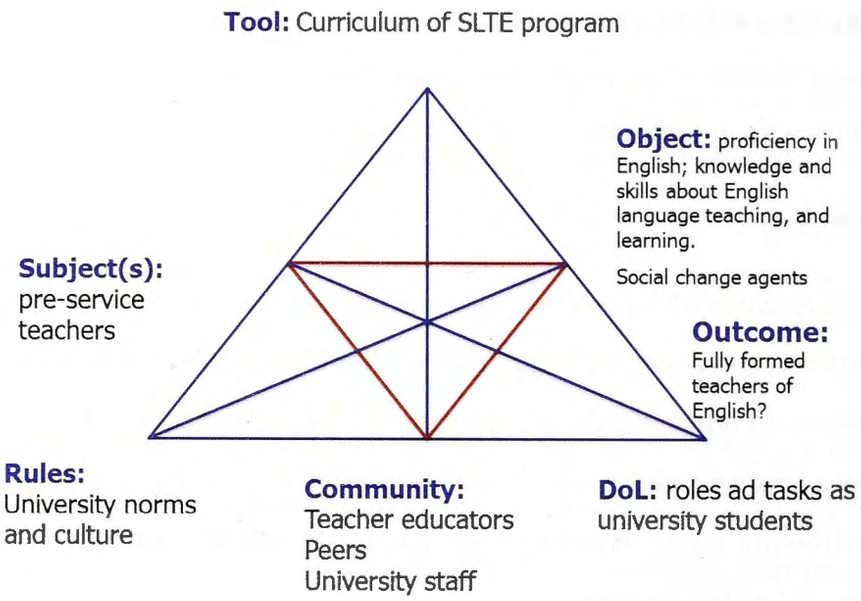

Figure 7.1: The activity of learning to teach EFL mediated by the curriculum of the program based on Engeström, 1987.

As seen in the previous section, the curriculum of the program provided pre-service teachers with English proficiency and practical tools and knowledge about language teaching, but the appropriation of this knowledge and skills is strongly shaped by situational contexts. Learning to teach EFL is not a solo activity but a confluence of the pre-service teachers' personal histories (for example, no English, poor schools), the culture of the school where the pre-service teachers teach (diverse), and the nature of the pre-service teacher education program (critical, and change agents). This understanding reveals the complexity of the activity of learning to teach, and questions the possibility of having a single outcome as a teacher. This is specially so, if this object is not shared by the whole community in the different activity settings. This will be further explored in the next chapters.

Pre-service teachers were mostly orientated towards the provision of knowledge in different areas, especially English and though they had subjects on language teaching methodology, learning to teach EFL was left to the school-based experiences. Teacher educators expected them to use what they had learnt in the university coursework. It was assumed that learning to teach would come with experience, and they had to endure. Little scaffolding was provided

regarding school-based experiences, and teacher educators got really frustrated when they saw that pre-service teachers "copied" what school teachers did, despite what they had received as part of their training.

The university coursework had emphasised the importance of teaching English in English, communicatively, not grammar focused, and with a critical mind. Conversely, pre-service teachers were conflicted when they had to put theory into practice, because they realised that it is not a clean and smooth process as studied in class. In the school context, pre-service teachers questioned the "laws" they were supposed to apply, they reflected on what to teach and how to teach in the light of their classroom realities.

Looking at how pre-service teachers learnt to teach EFL through the lens of activity theory has allowed me to understand how the formal context of the activity given by the SLTE program shaped pre-service teachers' learning.

7.7 Conclusions to the chapter

The data analysis suggested that the curriculum of the SLTE program played an important role shaping pre-service teachers' learning to teach English. The different planes of analysis (macro level of the activity and the lived experiences of the participants) provided a holistic idea of the teacher of English and with the learning opportunities to train a teacher of English in Chile. The analysis of the national curriculum and national standards illuminated the framework in which the SLTE program was situated to design its own curriculum. The analysis of the course structure revealed the most meaningful activities in the activity of learning to teach, and lastly, the analysis of appropriation of theoretical or practical tools elucidated the complexities of internalising the knowledge base and skills proposed in the teacher education curriculum.

The acquisition of the English language was one of the main challenges for pre-service teachers. English language classes constituted the core of the course structure having more than half of the credits. The national context here is important to remember as most pre-service teachers knew very little English before enrolling into the program. In the same way, the curriculum provided pre-service teachers with a foundation of linguistic knowledge about language acquisition processes together with educational theories, history of education, philosophy, psychology and sociology.

A key element in the course structure of the program was given by the experiential learning opportunities for teaching. School-based experiences had a very relevant role in the course structure and were seen as key for learning to teach English. These experiences aimed not only at the integration of theory into practice, but also to the development of teaching skills. Though the curriculum of the SLTE program can be characterised with a developmental approach because of the graded school-based experiences, it also contains a very strong component on training. It was expected that pre-service teachers transferred the knowledge they had acquired at university in the school context without much questioning or adaptation.

Overall, we can therefore conclude that the SLTE curriculum is one tool that mediated pre-service teachers' learning. They appropriated knowledge and skills in different ways. The different level of appropriation was given by the negotiation between their individual agency and their social engagement into the activity. Though I have demonstrated how university courses shaped part of pre-service teachers' knowledge, we can also see that it was not the only factor. On the contrary, we confirmed that pre-service teachers learnt to enact what teaching was using their beliefs and knowledge as school and university students, but also as teachers teaching at the schools.

The next chapter will present how pre-service teachers learnt to teach in the context of the schools. As will be seen in detail, this context differed in roles, expectations and motives from the university.

Chapter 8: The experience of practise: Being a teacher of EFL in Chile

8.1 Introduction

The intent of this chapter is to report other key findings of the analysis of the activity of learning to teach EFL in Chile. I will map out how school-based experiences and specifically the teaching practicum impacted on pre-service teachers' learning to teach EFL. This chapter will especially reveal the interplay between the role of the school based experiences and the participants' lived experiences. The findings here are presented in the form of description, data, and interpretive commentaries. Data such as direct quotes with highlighted phrases from participants of the activity will be included. As reported earlier, the data used in the analysis included pre-service teachers' self-reflection reports, document collection, interviews (pre-service teachers, teacher mentors, and teacher school teachers), classroom observations, and field notes.

The first exploration of the data through the open coding allowed me to identify the activity of learning to teach EFL. The themes and categories that were presented in Chapter 6 will be further explored in this chapter as the base to make sense of the activity situated at the practicum. Consequently, the following report of the findings uses activity theory based categories to structure the discussion. The activity of learning to teach EFL in Chile situated in the schools will be described using Engeström's triangle (1987). The focus will be on three main categories: making sense of the object of the activity of learning to teach EFL at the practicum, pre-service teachers' roles, and the community participating in the activity. The data were rich and salient in these categories. The first category of the object has emerged from the concept of object-orientedness and examines the ways in which pre-service teachers related to learning to teach EFL and ascribed meaning to it as they engaged in the activity. The second category of roles and tasks has emerged from the concept of the division of labour and considers how the work involved in transforming the object into an outcome was organised amongst pre-service teachers, teacher educators, and school teachers. The third category of participating community refers to the roles of the participants that contribute to shaping pre-service teachers' learning.

The first section of the chapter explores the object of the activity, making sense of the impact of field experiences in learning to teach EFL. The second section describes the experience of

practicum in detail and discusses how teacher identity is constructed. The chapter finishes with a discussion about the activity of learning to teach EFL as learning to act as a teacher of English. This part draws on the elements together providing a discussion of the national Chilean context and its implications on the practicum model used in the SLTE program.

8.2 Making sense of the learning object

As discussed in Chapter 4, the object of any activity is complex and dynamic. As Kaptelinin (2005) asserts, analysing the object of the activity not only allows the examination of what people are doing, but also why they do those actions. Thus, the object can be considered as "the sense maker, which gives meaning to and determines values of various entities and phenomena" (Kaptelinin, 2005, p. 5). In this sense, I am using the analysis of object and its development to make sense of the activity of learning to teach EFL.

First, I will discuss pre-service teachers' motives for teaching. Pre-service teachers' interviews revealed very clearly how their motives for becoming teachers had changed as they were about to graduate. When pre-service teachers enrolled in the program, they had different motives for entering the teaching profession. Most of the pre-service teachers reported that they enrolled in the SLTE program because they were interested in acquiring the English language (see Appendix F p.279). Only a few pre-service teachers revealed an interest towards pedagogy. As pre-service teachers engaged in teaching, not only personal motives changed, but a collective understanding of learning and teaching started to emerge. The idea of becoming a teacher of English became apparent. Consequently the object of the activity was transformed.

The data suggested that one key mediating tool in learning to teach was offered by the school-field experiences. Participants reported that field experiences and the teaching practicum were crucial in their learning to teach EFL (see Appendix F p.282). The data strongly suggested that school-field experiences impacted pre-service teachers' engagement and the object of the activity was transformed. In this thesis, as discussed above, the object of the activity is understood as the "ultimate reason" (Kaptelinin, 2005, p. 5) why subjects engage in specific actions. In this case, the activity of learning to teach EFL is a long-term project, and the individual motives into teaching not only changed as they engaged with it, but also as it became more of a collective activity than a personal journey. As will be supported from the data in this chapter, learning to teach is a social experience that engaged pre-service teachers

and the community in a shared and cooperative activity. This social engagement was particularly seen at the practicum where pre-service teachers engaged in teaching and battled their way into the school reality as novice teachers.

The most prominent theme that emerged when pre-service teachers reflected on their experiences regarding school-based experiences was their own identity (see Appendix F p. 284). This was not a surprise for the analysis since there is a body of literature that supports that school-based experiences have a direct impact on teacher identity formation. As reviewed in Chapter 3, following Lave and Wenger (1991), studies have demonstrated that learning to teach is closely related to *learning to be*. This means that learning is seen not only as the mastery of knowledge and teaching skills, but also as the development of values and behaviour typical of the teachers' community. This view is consistent with the data analysed in this study, and it seems that as pre-service teachers engage in teaching as one way to learn to teach, they construct a teacher identity. Therefore, field experiences are mediating elements in the formation of pre-service teacher's identity as teachers. In other words, the activity of learning to teach EFL is oriented towards the formation of a teacher identity. The analysis shows the dialectical nature of identity construction given by a continuum from interpersonal to intrapersonal processes. This means that teacher identity is a dynamic, constant process of incorporating the professional and the personal sides of being a teacher in a community.

As discussed in Chapter 3, identity has been studied in teacher SLTE to understand what teachers think and do. This body of literature has evidenced that teacher identity is not only a fixed self-image, but also being recognised by the community as a teacher (Danielewicz, 2001). Thus, being a teacher is a matter of the teacher being seen as a teacher by himself or herself and by others; it is a matter of arguing and then redefining an identity that is socially legitimised (Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004). Thus, teacher identity formation is conflicting as pre-service teachers have to make sense of varying and competing views of what teachers should know, do and be (Beijaard, et al., 2004). Consequently, teacher identity formation is a process of practical knowledge-building characterised by an ongoing integration of what is individually and collectively seen as relevant to teaching. This view coincides with the data analysis done for this stud y and will be discussed in the next section.

The following section reports on how pre-service teachers formed their teacher identity as they engaged in the school-based experiences and specifically during the practicum.

8.3 School-based experiences

The data analysed evidenced how school-based experiences contributed to shaping pre-service teachers' learning as EFL teachers (see Appendix F). The data strongly revealed that participants agreed that school-based experiences and practicum were the most meaningful activities in learning to teach EFL. Both pre-service teachers and teacher educators reported that field experiences contributed not only as a connection between theory and practice, but also shaped future teachers' identity. It is therefore useful to analyse the descriptions of the school-based experiences as it was reported by participants and also from the documents collected (course structure, practicum outline).

As part of its course structure, the SLTE program includes sequential school-based experiences for pre-service teachers (see Chapter 7). There are four school-based experiences and they are sequentially placed in the program from fifth to eighth semester. Each field experience lasts a 15-week semester. From the program's perspective, the goal of the school-based experiences consists of providing pre-service teachers with the opportunity to observe the school reality with a teacher's perspective, and also to put into practice the different skills they are learning in the program. The goals of the field experiences are written down in the curriculum of the SLTE program, and also on each field experience's syllabus. These written goals were confirmed with teacher educators' discourse as it was shown in the interviews.

As discussed in Chapter 2, in Chile there is not a supported teacher induction system. Therefore, universities and public schools have signed collaborative agreements to work together in the teacher induction process. These agreements are broad frameworks that allow pre-service teachers to visit the schools and assist the school staff. Pre-service teachers are allocated to the participating schools for a school semester. The participating schools accept the task more as a favour than a professional responsibility. As evidenced in the fieldwork, the selected schools range from under-resourced public schools to wealthy private bilingual institutions. The interviews with pre-service teachers and teacher educators confirmed the wide range of school environments encountered in school-based experiences. Apart from opportunistic reasons, teacher educators justified this decision based on the assumption that they are educating future teachers who can teach at both primary and secondary level, and can also work in different types of schools. Therefore, teacher educators argued that the program must provide a wide variety of school opportunities to pre-service teachers before they graduate.

The written curriculum was coherent with pre-service teachers' reflections on the activities undertaken at the school. The first two school-based experiences were characterised by pre-service teachers visiting a school, primary or high school, twice a week for around six hours each day. Pre-service teachers were asked to complete observations about the school system and teachers' practices, as well as provide assistance to teachers regarding material preparation or test marking. The next two field experiences varied especially regarding pre-service teachers' roles and tasks. Pre-service teachers were assigned to different schools and they were requested to take more active roles in the schools. They continued visiting the schools twice a week for around six hours each day. At that stage, pre-service teachers were expected not only to assist the school teachers with marking or other activities, but they were also expected to do actual teaching for short periods of time. The school-based experience course outline stated that pre-service teachers should plan an activity and teach it every week. Teacher educators and pre-service teachers reported that the activities described above were what they were expected to do at the schools. However, each school had its own demands, and in many cases pre-service teachers were requested to undertake actual teaching from the first time they went into the schools. Conversely, in some other cases, pre-service teachers were never allowed to teach at all (this was the case in some private schools).

In the first interviews of pre-service teachers, they reported a wide range of experiences at the schools (see thematic analysis on p.128). These experiences ranged from very positive to traumatic ones. The most outstanding category under school-based experiences was: *a path to be a teacher*. Even pre-service teachers, who experienced unsettling situations at the schools, reported their support towards the school-based experiences as necessary for their induction into teaching. Pre-service teacher 15 commented not only on the number of school-based experiences, but also on the huge impact they had on their formation as a teacher. As this student engaged in the teaching profession through the different experiences at the school she developed an understanding of what to be a teacher means. The sentence in bold summarises the impact of school-based experiences for this pre-service teacher. This quote is typical of the first analysed interviews.

> **If this had been my first practicum, the first time I went to a school, I'd have died**; I'd have got a heart attack. I'd have died, because I wouldn't have known how to deal with the students, with the school administration, I wouldn't have known how to create material, and I'd have been lost in front of the class. So, I think everything before that was

> really helpful, even though I complained and moaned "But I won my place and nobody can treat me as if I were a maid, nobody", **I'm the teacher there. I learnt how to do that in the two previous years** (S15-I).

Most pre-service teachers reported at least one of the school-based experiences as difficult or harsh. The categories under school-based experience difficulties were: harsh working conditions, lack of resources, a negative school culture, and unsupportive school teachers. Despite all the difficulties, pre-service teachers showed not only resilience, but also an understanding that school-based experiences were difficult because learning and teaching is complex. This was revealed not only in the interviews, but also as part of my observations at the schools. As pre-service teacher 2 states below, teaching English at school comprises much more than just teaching English. She acknowledged that she achieved this understanding, as she went through difficulties in the school-based experiences.

> Because they are not easy, **because it isn't only that you have to teach what you know in English, which is a challenge, you also have to learn how to deal with other people**. Situations like when someone makes unpleasant remarks on someone else, or how the power relations are built in school and how to identify them, or to be able to create a test, or to adapt myself (S2-I).

Pre-service teachers' reports about school-based experiences were positive as they valued that there is not a single school reality, but many. The quote below reflects a recurrent theme on the reports that evokes the singularity of each class. This reflection has a big implication as a teacher to be, since there is an understanding that learning is a situated complex activity.

> **Through the school-based experiences I can see that the level of education really varies depending on the location of the school** and the real weakness is in English (S5-I).

School-based experiences were also seen as opportunities to test what has been learnt at university. This is coherent with what teacher educators reported in the interviews regarding the role of the school-based experiences. They emphasised that school-based experiences were means so that pre-service teachers could transfer knowledge into the school classroom and prove how well they mastered that knowledge. As pre-service teacher 10 reflects, school-based experiences allowed her to test her mastery of knowledge into the real classroom.

> I think that is relevant to consider not only the fact that we have many school experiences which help us to understand the role of a teacher inside and outside school, and that is wonderful. Therefore, **I think that every school is a new opportunity to show what we have learnt during all this time** (S10-R).

As discussed above, school-based experiences are sequentially placed in the SLTE program, this sequence is given for their engagement in the teaching activity at the schools. This sequence mediates their own development of teaching skills and also their own self-image as a teacher. Pre-service teacher one's quote reflects the commonality in the data that showed how these experiences have shaped pre-service images as teachers.

> **I notice my changes as a teacher with every teaching experience**. In the first one I was a bit shy because I was afraid of the children's opinion. They could laugh at my height, I mean they could have said things like "I'm taller than you and you come here to teach me things". Then it's rewarding when you get the attitude and you say "I'm not your friend here, I'm your teacher" and they look at you in a different way. And, as I told you, **there are kind of steps to follow in these teaching practices and you go from observing to standing before a class**. That is rewarding. I wouldn't change that for anything (S1-I).

This section has demonstrated how the initial school-based experiences worked as the foundation stones for the construction of pre-service identity as professional teachers. These field experiences provided aspiring teachers with a sense of school reality and a first-hand experience of the typical activities teachers do at the schools. Though these experiences in a significant number of cases had some unsettling dimensions, they contributed to the development of resilience and a confirmation of pre-service teachers' commitment towards their training as future educators.

The next section will start with a description of the teaching practicum. This description includes roles, tasks, and rules pre-service teachers had to follow at the schools. The description was done analysing the SLTE curriculum and interviews with participants (pre-service teachers and teacher educators). The last part of the chapter will be an exploration of how pre-service teachers negotiated different identities in the situated activity of the teaching practicum.

The practicum

The practicum is a compulsory curricular activity situated in the last formal year of the training program, that is, in the fifth year of the SLTE program. The practicum consists of two 13-week teaching practices at a different school each semester. In this study, I focused only on the first of these teaching practices. As stated in Chapter 3, the model used in the studied program is a hybrid which has taken elements from different types of curriculum models. I can identify elements from the applied science model, as pre-service teachers are expected to put in practice what they have learnt at university. It also has elements of the community of practice model, the master apprentice model, and the case-based model. However, as will be seen below, a significant part of the practicum experience is left to chance, lacking a strong supported system.

The SLTE program assigned pre-service teachers to a primary school or high school in which they had to teach English to two grades. Around four pre-service teachers were allocated per school, and one teacher educator was in charge of coordinating the connection between the school and university. The schools were primary and high schools, public and subsidised schools. Though for the previous school-based experiences, private schools were assigned; this is not the case for the practicum. The SLTE education program studied has a policy of educating teachers for the public sector. Thus, its priority is to allocate pre-service teachers to public schools. This has turned out to be problematic for the university because the public sector is small and most of the schools are conservative, under-resourced and with poor academic results. This situation has made the university invite more and more subsidised schools to work with them.

Roles and tasks at the practicum

Pre-service teachers' tasks at the practicum consisted of taking the role of a teacher of English for two grades at the school assigned (clearly stated at the course outline). This meant that the pre-service teacher had to work in the school for around 16 of 45 slots a week. These hours were devoted to planning lessons, preparing material, marking tests and assignments, and teaching two grades. At primary school, English classes consisted of two or three slots a week, whereas at secondary level, the classes were three or four slots a week. My observations at the schools confirmed that pre-service teachers did the tasks mentioned. The difference between each pre-service teacher's experiences had more to do with the freedom

given towards curriculum decisions, class methodology, and relationship with students and the rest of school community.

As teachers of English, pre-service teachers were compelled to act and do as fully formed teachers. During my observations of pre-service teachers at the schools (see Appendix F p.284), I witnessed how they performed as teachers. As a starting point, all the teachers observed wore a uniform that identified them as teachers. All of them taught their lessons at the schools, planned their lessons and prepared audio-visual material.

Community

At the schools, pre-service teachers were assigned a teacher mentor who would guide them during the time of the practicum at the schools. These teachers' assigned activities to pre-service teachers and supervised them at the same time. The supervision, support and guidance of teacher mentors varied enormously from teacher to teacher depending on their experience, and personal engagement. My observations and the interviews revealed that teacher mentors played an important role either as a supporting guide or as an obstacle. Pre-service teacher 15's quote below is an example of how pre-service teachers acknowledged the important role of the teacher mentor in their learning.

> **My mentor was a threat and a facilitator at the same time**. He gave me the space to experiment in the classroom, do the classes I wanted to do, create my own material (for which he congratulated me in many opportunities), and apply my own classroom management and much more. But **he also behaved in a way sometimes that made feel insecure and troubled**, by correcting me in front of the class and not giving me real feedback about my classes (just a random "I liked it" or "I didn't like it"). He also interrupted my classes by talking to students or me about silly things, **but I cannot ignore the fact that he did many good things to support my learning** (S15-R).

Though the SLTE program staff acknowledged the important role of teacher mentors, there were no selection criteria for appointing teacher mentors. The head of the program reported that they know that "school teachers are bad, and inadequate as teacher mentors but if we get picky there won't be enough school teachers to allocate the pre-service teachers. We would like to be able to implement a mentoring system, but there is still lots to do" (H-I).

Through the interviews with teacher mentors and teacher educators (see Appendix F p.281), I could identify how school teachers came to be teacher mentors. The teacher mentors of this study were the school teachers who either offered themselves to be teacher mentors or were assigned to receive pre-service teachers by the headmaster of the school. Teacher mentors had no special training to perform this role. Teacher mentors received neither extra payment nor extra time to do this job. Teacher educators reported that a significant number of teacher mentors were not adequate role models, but not much could be done since there were not enough good teachers of English in the public system. Some teacher educators during the interviews were really emphatic about how ineffective school teachers were, and that it would be great to have a regulated mentoring system. Notwithstanding, the assessment of the practicum contemplated that teacher mentors assessed pre-service teachers' performance. The quote of teacher educator 7 is an example of teacher educators' views regarding school teachers as teacher mentors. As we will see later, this is a cause of tension in the activity.

> **I think that the teacher mentors, the schoolteachers are big obstacles in pre-service teachers' learning.** I feel there are many teachers unsuitable to be mentors. We have teachers that leave the pre-service teachers on their own, that don't guide them, or that criticise everything. There are others I can't complain about because they supervise and stay by our students. They really care about them. **But I'd say the norm is that this teacher who accepts the student doing their practicum but who has doubts, or feels jealous, or doesn't like the fact the student will leave and he'll have to take the class again** (TE6-I).

One of the hardest things to do during the data collection process was to interview teacher mentors at the schools. School teachers were not very positive about my invitation to participate in the research project. They simply did not respond or they said that they were tied up with too many activities and did not have time for an interview. With my observations, I confirmed their lack of time and disengagement. Out of 20 invitations, I was only able to interview four school teachers. I interpreted this as the way they saw my role, they saw me as a university teacher who would evaluate and criticise their job. This can be explained as teacher educators and teacher mentors had almost no interaction throughout the semester, and their own experiences as pre-service teachers when their teacher educators went to school and criticised everything at school. As discussed previously, university teachers had a view that school teachers were "ineffective" teachers. Though the program advocated that there was a

mentoring system starting to be in place for pre-service teachers, my observations and interviews evidenced that it was still far from close to formation, and required development, settlement and collaborative work.

From the analysis of the SLTE curriculum, interviews with participants, and observations I know that apart from school teachers, pre-service teachers were guided and supervised by teacher educators. The teacher educator assigned to the specific school at the beginning of the semester visited the school, and introduced himself/herself to the school staff. The teacher educator informed the administration of what pre-service teachers were expected to do. On that occasion, the teacher educator might have or might have not met the teacher mentors.

As reported by the head of the program and the interviews with teacher educators, most teacher educators were casual teachers of the SLTE program. They worked as teacher educators at several universities, and at the teacher education program studied most of them taught at least one subject apart from doing the teacher supervision. Most of them had had teaching experience at primary schools and high schools in their teaching career. They supervised between four to eight pre-service teachers per semester.

Teacher educators usually met pre-service teachers once a week either individually or in small groups. Pre-service teachers showed their lesson plans and shared their weekly reflection (written in a personal journal) on the experiences they were going through at the practicum. Teacher educators visited pre-service teachers at school usually on average three times during the practicum. On these visits, teacher educators observed pre-service teachers' classes. They went directly to the classroom, sat at the back and took notes. These descriptions originated from my observations both at school, and at university, and were also confirmed through the interviews with both pre-service teachers and teacher educators.

From my observations and the interviews, I would agree that the role of teacher educators was dual and conflicting. On one hand, they accompanied pre-service teachers in their teaching journey providing support and expert advice. On the other hand, they assessed pre-service teachers as teachers of English. This means that teacher educators evaluated pre-service teachers' work according to a specific set of criteria regardless of the school reality. Feedback was given to pre-service teachers in different ways: some teacher educators handed in a transcription of what happened in the lesson they observed, others wrote a report, while others

had a chat with the pre-service teacher. I observed that the relationship between pre-service teachers and teacher educators varied from teacher to teacher.

8.3.1 Practicum: a chronology

This section presents a reconstructed chronology of the practicum from a pre-service teachers' perspective. This description shows pre-service teachers' engagement and negotiations in the activity of learning to teach EFL mediated by the practicum.

The first interview with pre-service teachers took place either before they had started their practicum or in the first two weeks they started. This was done to capture pre-service teachers' expectations of the practicum. This was very helpful to later analyse how the object of the activity was transformed. Most pre-service teachers reported that they were very anxious to start the practicum. Though the school-based experiences had provided them with the opportunity to see the school first-hand, they knew that the practicum would offer them new challenges. The challenges mostly reported by pre-service teachers were: be in charge of two grades; be completely responsible for teaching; work with an unsupportive teacher mentor; teach unmotivated and disruptive students; and deal with classroom management. Pre-service teachers revealed that they were fearful about this new experience.

> **What really frightens me is the way things will go in the school**. I want everything to go ok, and I hope the kids will respect me because if they stab one another and all I don't know how they will behave with me (S10-I).

During the interviews, pre-service teachers expressed uncertainty and anxiety as part of their expectations. Many reported they were anxious because they felt that this was the time they really had to prove if they could be teachers or not. For the first time they would be responsible for teaching two groups for a whole semester. Pre-service teacher 11 below reflects on how the practicum would be different from the previous field experiences. This novelty made her feel uneasy.

> It's not like getting into teaching out of the blue, we have gained so much experience through our previous teaching practices before, and it is not like being in front of a classroom for the first time. But now, **this is going to be absolutely different from what I have done before** (S11-I).

Pre-service teachers manifested their anxiety about the complexity of teaching and learning to teach. The main issues reported were: the relationship with teacher mentors; the type of the school; the grades they have to teach, classroom management, and also about the use of English. Despite this anxiety, the data revealed that pre-service teachers did expect to overcome the difficulties of the practicum and contribute to their training as teachers.

> **I do expect it to be difficult** and to make me stronger, so next year I'll go and say: "OK, here I am, on my own, and **I already have all the tools I need to be a good teacher"** (S2-I).

Pre-service teachers reported that school life can be hard, and that the practicum would not be an easy task. However, most of them revealed great resilience and expected that the practicum would contribute to their becoming a good teacher. Pre-service teacher two's reflection above shows her resilience and determination to become a good teacher. This was a common pattern in the data.

As detailed in Chapter 5, I shadowed ten pre-service teachers doing their practicum at the schools. This was done as one way to witness their engagement in the activity of learning to teach EFL at the practicum. The following is a recount of my observations at the schools and second interviews with pre-service teachers. This account is relevant since it shows how pre-service teachers transformed the object as they started teaching, and performing as teachers.

By week six of the semester, I accompanied ten pre-service teachers to the schools. The day I spent with them revealed their engagement in the teaching activities. I observed them teaching, and the rest of actions they did at school. From the pre-service teachers I observed, they usually taught for two periods of 45 minutes each, sometimes the two periods were for one class, other times they taught two different groups. The other activities pre-service teachers did were lesson planning, material preparation, marking tests/assignments, and assisting the school teacher with teaching material.

Pre-service teachers' engagement in the school life was marginal. They rarely participated in teachers' meetings, or any other activity that the school as a whole was involved in. The use of common areas was a key-revealing factor regarding pre-service teachers' engagement in the school life. Some of them were able to use the teachers' room and all the resources available for teachers. However, in other cases, they were not welcomed at the teachers' room at all, and they were designated to other rooms to do their job, like the school library. This

revealed that pre-service teachers were still seen as students. They were marginal participants in the teachers' community.

The following are three short narratives that I wrote using my field notes and interviews with pre-service teachers. These narratives were done with the purpose of reconstructing pre-service teachers' experiences at the practicum. I wrote a narrative for each student I accompanied at school, but I chose three to analyse here as representative examples of the data. These descriptions reveal their engagement in the teaching activity and some of the challenges they had to overcome at the schools. At the time of the observations, they had been at the schools for between four and six weeks, therefore, they were still adapting to the school context and their teachers' roles. They were negotiating different identities as they interacted with their students and colleagues.

8.3.2 Narrative 1: an overwhelming experience

I chose to narrate this case as it represents the experience of a third of the participants in the study. This pre-service teacher was very enthusiastic when she started and then her confidence and skills were undermined by the harsh school reality. The practicum experience became overwhelming and somewhat traumatic.

> ...**it was so demanding and overwhelming** at times when I had to handle student`s problems and implementing activities according to their learning styles in large heterogeneous classes (S2-R).

Pre-service teacher 2 was assigned to teach two levels, ninth and eleventh grade at a public vocational high school located in the centre of Santiago. She taught six hours a week and stayed at the school a total of 15 hours weekly. When she was not teaching, she was either planning or preparing material. She did this in the teachers' lounge, a very small and noisy place, with only a table and some chairs available. The school was going through refurbishment at that moment so a big part of the school looked like a construction site. She used the school lesson plans as a base to make her own lesson plans. She followed her teacher mentor's suggestions regarding content to be taught in her classes.

Her teacher mentor rarely gave her any feedback. She had only suggested that she should write the lesson objective on the board. Pre-service teacher two felt frustrated by this lack of feedback, but at the same time she saw that it would be very difficult for the mentor to give her more feedback as she was never in the classroom for a whole hour. The day I was with the

pre-service teacher at the school, the teacher mentor stayed in the teacher lounge while we went to the classroom, later she came in and stayed there for ten minutes and left again.

In the classroom, pre-service teacher two was completely into the teacher's role. We got to the classroom late, and students were already there, discussing if they were joining the strike the next day. It was a class of 40 students in an old classroom. It was hard for the pre-service teacher to start the lesson after a controversial issue was being discussed. Nevertheless, she managed to help students finish the strike debate and she started her class. She greeted students in English, and asked them to open their textbooks. The beginning of the class was dynamic and engaging. She tried different activities (role play, filling in the gaps and a guessing game) to keep students engaged in tasks. It was not easy, because some students did not understand the instructions, or the activity itself. As the pre-service teacher became aware that students did not understand her instructions, she went around the class, and explained individually what they had to do. She switched into Spanish from time to time to repeat the instructions or to discipline students. The last part of the lesson became somewhat unmanageable; students were chatting and doing different things. There was no proper end of the lesson, and students started to come out of the classroom when the bell rang for the break. Pre-service teacher two was furious and devastated by the end of the class. She could not believe the way the students had misbehaved. She felt she was never in control of the class. As we got to the teachers' lounge, the teacher mentor asked her how the lesson had ended and the pre-service teacher burst into tears. The mentor gave her a hug and tried to console her. She said that things were going alright and that she did not have to worry much about it. Pre-service teacher two was really upset because the activities that she had planned had not worked as well as she thought they would. She also felt frustrated because students were disruptive and unmotivated. On top of everything, I was observing her class.

A few days later I interviewed her for the second time. This interview had the intention of capturing her reflections on the specific lesson and the practicum in general. She expressed her frustration and anger not only because of the lesson I observed, but because she felt overwhelmed by the practicum in general. To my surprise, pre-service teacher two was highly interested in my feedback on her class. She wanted me to critique her teaching and give her suggestions on how to improve her classes. This is also evidence of how pre-service teachers negotiated different identities during the practicum. As I interviewed her, she became a university student, whereas with the teacher mentor she behaved as a school student in some

regard. Her emerging teacher identity was hampered by her desire to comply with the rules of expectations that were upon her, from the teacher mentor and or the university expectations.

> This experience has helped me a lot in terms of classroom management and I would say **that I will know how to make things different to deal against the authoritarianism and lack of motivation in my future as a newly qualify teacher** (S2-I2).

Although the aim of the observation was different, and I had explained to her my research objectives several times; I could not ignore the fact that for the pre-service teachers I was not only a researcher, but a teacher educator. Therefore, in future observations I decided to provide suggestions and comments about their teaching if they requested. This was a good opportunity for me to realise the power of research as one way to empower participants. This second interview was more reflective and dialogic. Here a stronger identity emerged from her own practice as a teacher. This reflects herself as a teacher with a clear idea of what she knows and what she wants to achieve with her teaching.

8.3.3 Narrative 2: I do not mind doing "el loco" in front of my students.

Case two is an example of another group of participants who finished their practicum feeling they had learnt considerably and they were happy to continue with their development as teachers. Pre-service teacher four exhibited a strong self-image as a teacher of English, a language teacher, and her discourse was consistent with that identity.

> I think my inhibitions from previews years have almost disappeared. **I do not mind doing "el loco" in front of my students if that is a mean to reach learning**, one of the most important things in my class is kids having fun when being educated (S4-R).

Pre-service teacher 4 did her practicum in a subsidised primary school in a poor southern suburb of Santiago. This school had a small number of enrolments of approximately 400 students from kindergarten to grade eight. English was taught at this school from first grade. There was only one teacher of English who taught at all levels. The school had only begun receiving pre-service teachers for their practicum in 2011 as a result of one of the teacher educators' personal introductions. The teacher tutor was going to another school when she saw this one and decided to come in and talk to the headmaster. She convinced the headmaster to accept two students to do their practicum there. They were a bit reluctant at the

beginning, but then they opened the doors to the student teachers as one way to improve their teaching.

The headmaster informed the teacher of English and asked her to act as a teacher mentor. The teacher mentor has been a teacher for eight years, but it was the first time she had been a teacher mentor; she had been working at that school for six years.

Pre-service teacher four taught English to first and sixth graders for a total of six hours weekly. However, she spent 16 hours at school. When she was not teaching, she was preparing her lessons and audio-visual material. She also collaborated with her teacher mentor with audio-visual material for her other classes.

When I observed pre-service teacher four at the school, I could see that she had fully embraced the teacher's role. I saw how she related to the other teachers in a very respectful way, almost like a school student. I accompanied her into the first grade class. She provided a very active lesson in which she engaged students to participate in different activities. She was very dynamic and resourceful. She spoke English all the time, made children sing and do short dialogues. The teacher mentor was present in the classroom and collaborated with the pre-service teacher monitoring students' work and giving examples as required. Pre-service teacher four was the teacher of the class. Children were very caring and engaged with her. I witnessed how happy students were in the English class.

After the class, I interviewed pre-service teacher four. The conversation went around her strengths and weaknesses as a teacher. She was very reflective about her teaching methods. For example, she questioned herself about being too behaviourist, using positive and negative rewards too often. She also showed her concern about giving instructions, her voice projection and how to find a balance to be firm, but fair with young children. Pre-service teacher four showed her emerging identity as a teacher related to her knowledge of teaching methods and how she applied that knowledge into her practice. This interview allowed me to confirm her strong commitment towards teaching English. Her teacher mentor saw her as a colleague, and she encouraged her creativity in the classroom.

> I know that I still have a long way to go in order to be a good professional, but **I also know that now I know what I want to do with the rest of my life. I want to be in the classroom teaching what I know**, showing the world to new generations and open minds (S2-I2).

In the second interview, a teacher identity as a social agent emerged. This new identity reflects a broader understanding of what teaching is, going further from the language teacher role.

8.3.4 Narrative 3: Am I capable enough to be a teacher of English?

Case three's narrative below shows that the teaching practice has contributed to make pre-service teacher 11 aware of the complexities of the teacher reality and he is doubtful about being a teacher after graduation. This pre-service teacher resists accepting what being a teacher involves. This is representative of another group of participants who were pondering if teaching was what they wanted to do as their professional career in their near future.

> **I love teaching, I know I can teach one lesson, but I don't know if I will be able to do it on everyday basis** considering all the complexity that teaching implies (S11-R).

Pre-service teacher 11 did his practicum at a public high school. This school had a small enrolment of approximately 300 students from grades three to 12. The school has a focus on arts and music. Pre-service teacher 11 taught the seventh grade once a week for two hours for around 12 weeks. He went to that school three times a week for a total of 12 hours, not 15 as he was supposed to. He thought it was unnecessary to be at school for that long. When he was not teaching, he was reading or studying for his subjects at university. He did not use that time for planning or preparing material. His teacher mentor graduated from the same university a year ago. She had started teaching that group three weeks ago, just when pre-service teacher 11 arrived. Therefore, she did not know the students, or the contents to teach either. Pre-service teacher 11 and his teacher mentor discussed together what they were going to teach throughout the semester. She wanted him to take risks, to speak more English during the lesson.

At the school, he looked very comfortable. However, he wore formal clothes in a non-traditional school. That struck me, and I asked him why he was wearing a tie and he said that he did it because he wanted to make it clear that he was the teacher. This evidenced what he understood as part of a teacher identity, i.e. to be formal. In the classroom, students were engaged with him, and showed respect for him as a teacher. I observed his second class. He did his lesson based on a reading text from the textbook. The mentor was in the classroom all the time and was very cooperative. She helped to answer students' questions and to make

students quiet. Though students seemed interested in the class, they couldn't help chatting to their classmates sitting next to them. Pre-service teacher 11 got upset at that. He spoke in English and then he translated into Spanish. Later I asked him why he did that, and he said that for those students it was the first time that they had English lessons in English, so he was trying to make it easier for them, and that little by little he aimed to speak only in English.

He planned the lesson based on the textbook used at the school. He adapted the activities that he thought would be more meaningful for his students. Then he wrote his lesson plan, he did not enjoy doing lesson plans because he thought that they were more a constraint than an enhancement to his teaching. For him, teaching is a dynamic process which goes beyond lesson planning. He thinks that just a general outline of what is going to be done is enough. He compared the lesson plan as a 'rigid structured script', and he emphatically said that 'classes are not'. His mentor approved his ideas for the class I observed and his tutor gave him some ideas and suggestions on activities he could do.

After teaching the lesson I asked him about how he had felt and he said that he felt uncomfortable and a bit tight because he was not able to give the dynamism to the lesson that he would have wanted to. He also thought that students' participation was good and made him happy even though students were not correct in the use of English; they tried, and were very creative inventing words. He saw that his students had a lot of potentiality and that class after class, things would improve because he would be able to know students better. In the future he would like to be more confident about the use of his English and not jump into Spanish all the time. He also believed that he needed to learn skills on how to improve discipline in the class so that the rhythm of the class would not be affected.

At that time as his goal for the practicum he expected to demonstrate to himself that he could be a teacher of English. After four weeks at school, one teacher of English quit her job and pre-service teacher 11 was offered to take it. He accepted the offer happily. However, he asserted that he still was not sure if he wanted to be a teacher, but he would try. Though this pre-service teacher did not feel as a teacher completely, his peers and colleagues saw him as such. His identity as a teacher was emerging amid negotiation between his identities as student and colleague.

The cases presented above exemplify how their teachers' identity was dynamic, ongoing and multiple. Pre-service teachers negotiated their self-images with the members of the

communities. They did not necessarily adopt an expected teacher identity, but constructed their own according to the settings they were immersed in. The next section presents pre-service teachers' perceptions on their learnings during their practicum by the end of the practicum. Here we will see an emphasis on a teacher identity marked by the knowledge base they had acquired.

8.4 Reflections by the end of the practicum

By the end of the practicum, pre-service teachers wrote a reflective piece of writing about their practicum experiences. This report was prepared as part of the discussion seminar and it aimed at making them reflect on their learning in the practicum. The thematic analysis of these reports was crucial to understand the role of the practicum (see thematic analysis on p. 130). Pre-service teachers' reports reflected the great impact of the practicum on their learning to be a teacher. The reports focused on pre-service teachers' own reflections on their strengths and weaknesses as teachers. They also used critical incidents as examples to illustrate their learnings in terms of challenges and opportunities they faced at the schools.

The most recurrent learning that pre-service teachers reported was in relation to 'teaching skills'. I used this label to refer to the skills of classroom management and teaching methodology. This was coherent with what they had manifested as expected learnings when they finished the practicum. As they engaged more and more in teaching, they saw that the practicum could be a good place to learn to master those tools and improve their teaching. The data suggested that these learnings were not just a set of skills to master, but more an evidence of their engagement in the teaching practices. This engagement legitimatised them as teachers and contributed to the construction of their identity as teachers.

Classroom management

Classroom management refers to the things that teachers do in order to promote a positive working environment in the classroom, and also foster student engagement in classroom activities (Wong & Wong, 2009). This broad definition is coherent with what pre-service teachers perceived as classroom management. Pre-service teachers reflected on the actions and activities they did inside the classroom. Most of them identified classroom management as a challenge, especially when they had to deal with students' misbehaviour. Pre-service teacher 15's quote below is one example of the data which suggested the difficulties they faced as delivering their teaching.

> **The hardest challenge was the classroom management. I applied all the methods I knew and some my teacher gave me**, for example stand up in silence at the front, write them in the book, talk in private with the student, and many more, but only by the end of the semester students were behaving well (S15-R).

According to teacher education literature, dealing with misbehaviour is one of the issues that novice teachers report as most difficult (Anhorn, 2008). The study of Beck, Kosnik and Rowsell (2007) revealed that as soon as novice teachers find their way to manage a class properly, they would focus on the subject matter. This is coherent with the data shown here. Furthermore, some pre-service teachers expressed some inner conflict as they tried to use English even when they disciplined students and students did not understand them. Pre-service teachers realised that using English was not necessarily adequate when dealing with misbehaviour.

As pre-service teachers engaged in teaching they not only became aware of their strengths and weaknesses as teachers, but they were also able to create tasks and use different resources to engage their students. This development gave them confidence and contributed to their teacher identity formation. As pre-service teacher 24 reflects, she realised that teaching is a complex issue, that requires being resourceful. The key in this reflection is how this teacher reflects on her actions to motivate her students learning English.

> I have weaknesses and strengths that I have to face and take advantage in order to teach students in the best possible way according to the context in which I am working. For example, I have created a *Facebook* account for each grade to keep in touch with parents, and I have used a website to motivate students. In my opinion, **my strength is being willing to use the resources the school has to motivate students to learn and show them that English is not boring** (S24-R).

As part of classroom management, pre-service teachers' reflections revealed their concern on the strategies they used to create a positive classroom environment. Pre-service teachers reflected on how a positive atmosphere had helped so that students could learn more effectively. This is crucial since pre-service teachers acknowledged their role as teachers whose object was students' learning.

> **I don't like to yell at my students. I'm always putting my efforts into keeping a good climate in the class and it works.** My students really appreciate me due to the fact that I talked to them before and after classes or when they felt sad I supported them (S21-R).

Pre-service teacher five's quote reflects her strong commitment towards her students' learning. She emphasised that a good class for her was about being an important role to students' active participation and engagement.

> I think that my best lessons have been with them because I do not have problems with classroom management inside of the classroom, they enjoy my lessons and one of the best things about this is that they love to participate in class. Therefore, **what I always expect for my lessons work out well and at the end of the class I feel happy because students and I have fun. Plus, the good relationship that my students and I have has helped a lot in order to have a good environment in class** (S5-R).

Teaching methodology

Another prominent theme related to the learning gained through the practicum was class methodology. Pre-service teachers considered that the practicum enabled them to learn different classroom techniques. The most important aspect here is not the technique itself, but their reflection on how these techniques helped them to engage their students and contribute to their students' learning.

> I am a creative person and that helped me a lot while I was doing my practicum. **I presented lots of games in my classes, flashcards and nice material to work with. So, I engaged my students and the most important thing is that they really learnt** (S10-R).

Learning is not a simple, straightforward process. Learning involves overcoming obstacles, facing challenges, questioning and relearning new ways. Reflecting on the learning gained through the practicum helped pre-service teachers to think about what learning means, and how they are contributing to learning. This reflection shows how pre-service teachers were constantly evaluating their actions as teachers.

> The biggest challenge I had, and I think I mentioned previously, was to achieve learning. My methodology is fun, interactive and motivational classes, and the big problem is to improve learning within all the fun. But after many evaluations I found out that my students did much better because the type of assessment I applied was different. In a grammar focused test they do poorly but **if I do a communicative assessment they perform very well in general. Is that good? I think it is, because my classes are communicative, then the assessment is coherent and they actually achieved learning** (S15-R).

Another common theme in the data was the use of English as a means of instruction in the classroom. As presented in Chapter 7, pre-service teachers tried to use English as the means of instruction in their lessons. However, as they reflected on how much they have learnt through the practicum, some of them confided that they were not happy with their level of English proficiency. Pre-service teacher four, for example, reflects on how her level of English is still insufficient to be a competent teacher of English.

> Unfortunately, I still have several problems with my English proficiency, even though I have improved a lot, I still think that my **level is not enough to be an English teacher** (S4-R).

The data very strongly showed how pre-service teachers expectations about the learnings of the practicum changed. As engaged in the teaching activity, they moved from mastering a handful of successful teaching techniques to the use of those techniques in order to achieve learning.

> One of the strengths is that my relationship with students has been really inspiring. **During these months at the school, I have been really empathetic with kids.** This does not mean they can do whatever they want in the classroom. Since **the very first moment together we set the rules for the English class and they all agreed**. In spite of being children they know what the expected behaviour from the teacher is (S21-R).

As illustrated in the quotes above, pre-service teachers not only used the practicum as a laboratory to try out their teaching theories, but as a path to the teaching profession. This finding is consistent with Beijaard et al's (2000) understanding of teacher identity consisting

of sub-identities as pedagogical and didactical experts together with being experts of the subject matter. In this way, pre-service teachers face the challenge of the school reality negotiating their identities. They had to find different ways to overcome the obstacles and resolve what to do in everyday situations at school. The practicum also facilitated a reflection process about their own learning process and their transformation from students to teachers. As Miller (2009) observed, and was demonstrated in this study, the formation of language teacher identity is given by a complex relation between self-image, knowledge, context, and practice. Therefore, a teachers' professional identity consists of sub-identities relating to teachers different contexts and relationships (Beijaard, et al., 2004).

8.5 The activity of learning to act as a teacher at the practicum

Studies in teacher education tend to focus either on teacher educators or on student teachers. CHAT, however, forces us to look at the entire social activity system and study the dynamic changes therein. This leads us to a more holistic approach. In fact, as seen in the previous sections, the practicum became a tool that mediated the negotiation of different identities in which teaching was *learning* and learning became *teaching* (Roth & Radford, 2011) for pre-service teachers.

As stated at the beginning of the chapter, the practicum was signalled by participants as a key mediating tool in learning to teach EFL. Pre-service teachers were engaged in learning teaching strategies as one way to learn how to be teachers. As shown in Figure 8.1 below, the activity of learning to teach EFL mediated by the practicum, has revealed that the learning goes beyond mastering skills, and the appropriation of an expected knowledge base.

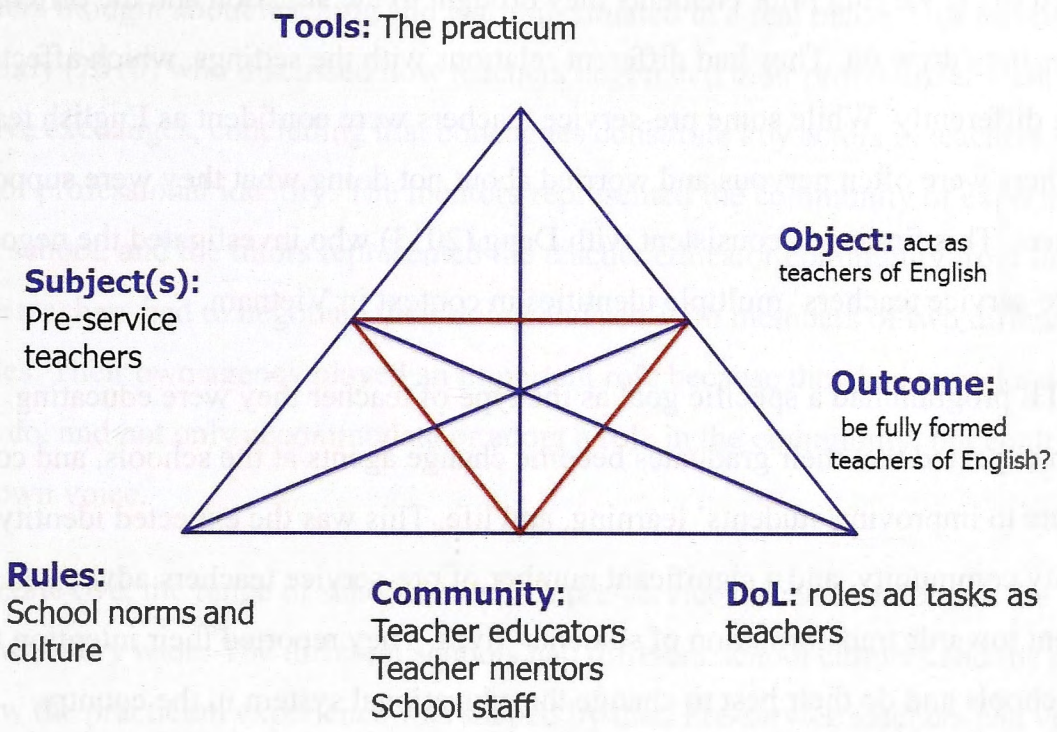

Figure 8.1: The activity of learning to teach mediated by the practicum based on Engeström, 1987.

Further, as also noted earlier, the object of the activity revealed to be learning to be/act as a teacher. Here I argue that learning to teach EFL is inseparable from learning to be a teacher. This argument is supported by the data which strongly showed how pre-service teachers committed themselves in learning teaching strategies, trying out methodologies and challenging themselves. All the challenges they faced and overcame had the underpinning of a collective object, becoming a teacher of English in the Chilean schools. This object went beyond the personal motives of each pre-service teacher to become teachers. The collective endeavour of learning to teach EFL comprised a complex mix of skills, knowledge, attitudes and identities that make up a fully formed teacher of English.

The data showed how the professional teacher identity formation is a social construct that is situated in the activity. The practicum facilitated the development of a teacher identity and two clear emerging identities arose from the data: a teacher who is a social change agent, committed to the social welfare of his/her students, and a language teacher, a teacher of English whose main focus is the teaching and learning of English. Some participants showed a tendency towards one or the other at the beginning of the practicum while by the end they showed more features of the other. Pre-service teachers demonstrated different levels of

understanding and made different meanings out of the situation. The differences were attributed to the varying prior elements they brought to the situation and the different identities they drew on. They had different relations with the settings, which affected their learning differently. While some pre-service teachers were confident as English teachers, some others were often nervous and worried about not doing what they were supposed to do as teachers. This finding is consistent with Dang (2013) who investigated the negotiation of some pre-service teachers' multiple identities in context in Vietnam.

The SLTE program had a specific goal as the type of teacher they were educating. The program expected that their graduates become change agents at the schools, and consequently contribute to improving students' learning, and life. This was the expected identity by the university community, and a significant number of pre-service teachers advocated their alignment towards transformation of students' lives. They reported their intention to work in public schools and do their best to change the educational system in the country.

An English language teacher identity was the other strong emerging identity found in the data. A smaller group of pre-service teachers were much more interested in being a language teacher. This means that their focus as teachers was to improve their students' learning of English. Not only was their personal interest the English language, but the teaching of the language; they were concerned about the use of English, language class methodology, and doing their best so that their students acquired English. These pre-service teachers showed their concern about the difficulties of teaching English and also their own struggles with the language. English proficiency was a constant feature mentioned by all the participants as key in a teacher of English.

Being a teacher in the school community

The social nature of the teacher's identity has been reflected in the data as the school and the school community shaped pre-service teachers' identities. The activity situated at the practicum was an opportunity for teachers to be part of a school community. The school community, on one hand, shaped pre-service teachers learning in the sense that the school culture provided pre-service teachers not only with rules to be respected, but also with expected behaviours that are accepted within that setting. This finding is consistent with the study by Flores and Day (2006) who argued that a strong interaction between the personal histories of novice teachers and the contextual influences of the school in influencing the shaping and reshaping of these teachers' identities.

The school community was also crucial for pre-service teachers to consolidate the idea of what teachers thought about teaching and learning situated in a real place. This resonates with Cohen's study (2010) who discussed how teachers negotiated their professional identity in collaborative exchanges, concluding that colleagues constitute key actors in teachers formation of professional identity. The mentors represented the community of experienced teachers at school, and the tutors represented the teacher educator community from university. Pre-service teachers had to negotiate their doing and self with members of two different communities. Their own agency played an important role because they had to make decisions on what to do, and not only accommodate or adopt a role in the community, but contribute with their own voice.

As described above, the range of schools in which pre-service teachers undertook the practicum was very wide. The different schools had different school cultures and the data showed how the practicum experience was shaped by that. Pre-service teachers had very different experiences in relation to the school communities and their relationships with teacher mentors. In some cases, the experience was very positive, and teacher mentors were supportive, and they mentored pre-service teachers. Unfortunately, in a significant number of cases, as reported by both pre-service teachers, and teacher educators, school teachers were an obstacle for pre-service teachers to learn to teach EFL. They not only did not provide any guidance, but made the teachers' induction very difficult.

Apart from the teacher mentors, other members of the school shaped how pre-service teachers engaged in teaching. In some schools, the head of the English department, or the coordinator had a direct relationship with pre-service teachers. However, in most cases, pre-service teachers were never invited to participate in teachers' meetings. Their participation at the schools was minimal. This lack of interaction with other members of the school community made it difficult for them to understand why teachers related to other teachers and administrative staff in a specific way. As in some schools, pre-service teachers were treated as students or assistant teachers; the other teachers ignored them, or rarely talked to them. This was also a bigger issue in the cases where pre-service teachers were not even allowed to use the teachers' room, and they were allocated to a different room for pre-service teachers.

In the case of the schools that offered support to pre-service teachers, as teachers to be, and in which they accepted the responsibility of training future teachers, there was a much bigger involvement and engagement of pre-service teachers in the school life. The engagement with

the school community allowed a better understanding of how the school system works, and what is expected of an English teacher.

Some inherent contradictions of the activity of learning to teach EFL emerged at the practicum. These will be explored in detail in the next chapter. Thus, here I just outline some tensions that took place in the school setting.

One clear tension that emerged during the practicum is related to the student and teacher identity of pre-service teachers. On one hand, pre-service teachers were also considered students at the schools, and were not given power to make decisions over the curriculum, or assessment, and on the other hand, they were expected to behave and act as teachers in the classroom. Teacher mentors commented that the main weakness that pre-service teachers showed was their lack of flexibility to adapt to school reality. Teacher mentors expected that pre-service teachers know how to act in all of the different situations they faced as teachers.

Another contradiction that emerged was that the pre-service teachers' self-image as teachers contrasted with the teacher educators' view of pre-service teachers as students. Pre-service teachers did most of the job of a full time teacher, preparing lessons, tests, materials, and also teaching. Their students saw them as teachers, and treated them as such; however university teachers did not necessarily share this view. In this regard though most teacher educators said in the interviews that pre-service teachers were colleagues, and that their role was accompanying them in this journey, they had very clear expectations of what they had to do, and how they had to be as teachers. In some cases, pre-service teachers were not listened to as to what they were going through at the schools, and instead they endured imposed activities within schools.

As the practicum is an assessed activity in the SLTE program and a requirement before graduation, I witnessed how in some cases, pre-service teachers gave up their own ideas so as to meet the university's expectations, and pass the practicum successfully. One example of this was the use of English in the class, some pre-service teachers thought that using English 100 per cent of the time in the classroom was not only impossible, but did not lead to any learning. On the contrary, it was seen as confusing and frustrating for students. Instead of discussing these issues with their teacher educators, they made sure that they used 100 per cent English when they were being observed by their supervisors.

8.6 Conclusions to the chapter

This chapter has reported the role of the school-based experiences, and especially the practicum in the activity of learning to teach EFL. The activity has been revealed as an activity in which participants transformed the learning object through teaching and engagement in the teaching actions. The data strongly suggested that learning to teach is closely related to teacher identity. As Dang (2013) observed, teacher identity formation was seen in activity.

This chapter analysed how teacher identity is a socially situated construction and revealed its dialectical nature. The analysis of the different planes (macro level of the activity and the lived experiences of the participants) has revealed that identity construction was given by a constant negotiation between what was expected from them as teachers (institutional/social) and who they wanted to become (agency/individual). This implies that pre-service teachers not only consumed the school life, or only adapted themselves to the school reality, but they contributed to change the practices at school. Through the practicum, pre-service teachers learnt about the school, students, teachers' practices, and about themselves. Pre-service teachers formed their professional identity in the very engagement with the actions they had to do and performed as teachers at school. Being a teacher became a meaningful life project or the actual search for one. The *activity of practising to be* a teacher revealed challenges, negotiations and conflicts that pre-service teachers had to face. They learnt to interpret and internalise what it takes to be a teacher. This finding is in the same line as Tsui and Law's (2007) and Luebbers' (2010) who studied how pre-service teachers learnt to teach in the school and university contexts.

In summary, I have argued that the practicum mediates teacher identity. Teacher identity is a complex phenomenon that is not fixed, is multiple, shifting, in conflict, and in activity. The formation of a professional teacher identity formation is a process of practical knowledge-building characterised by an ongoing integration of what is individually and collectively seen as relevant to teaching. The analysis of the object of the activity as a sense maker provided an understanding that teacher identity is context bound, closely related to social and cultural links and that it needs to be studied with a dialectical perspective to make sense of it.

The next chapter deals with the contradictions of the activity, some of which have already been outlined in this chapter.

Chapter 9: Contradictions in the activity of learning to teach EFL in Chile

9.1 Introduction

In the previous chapters I have showed how the SLTE curriculum and the practicum mediate the activity of learning to teach EFL in Chile. I have argued that while the SLTE curriculum provided pre-service teachers tools (knowledge and skills) to be able to perform as EFL teachers at schools, the practicum provided the setting to be a teacher. Those findings have contributed to understand the interplay of the macro level of the activity and the lived experiences of the participants. Furthermore, the analysis has revealed the inherent contradictions in the different planes and levels of how teachers learn to teach EFL.

This chapter highlights the inherent contradictions that emerged around how pre-service teachers learnt to teach English. The concept of contradictions is drawn from CHAT which sees contradictions as disturbances that have the potential for transformation in the activity (Issroff & Scanlon, 2002). Contradictions were apparent in the data and its analysis illuminates the mutual constitutive planes of the learning activity and their potential expansive use for improvement of SLTE. As outlined in the previous chapters, contradictions exist at various planes of the analysis, the national context, the SLTE program and the lived experiences of the pre-service teachers; at different levels of the activity, within each component of the activity, within pre-service teachers, between the components, between pre-service teachers and the community, and between activity systems. The data clearly showed contradictions between the university and the schools where pre-service teachers were completing their practicum. This is the framework that orients the discussion of this chapter. The data used in this chapter draws on respondent perspectives, descriptions and commentaries of participants' interviews, and analysed documents.

This chapter maps out the sources of systemic tensions in relation to the activity of learning to teach EFL. Through this analysis, I identify the different types of contradictions within the activity. The chapter is structured in three sections. The first section explores the concept of contradictions and how it was used in the analysis. The second section reports on contradictions within the subjects, i.e. pre-service teachers' inner conflicts between their conceptualisations about language learning and teaching and the classroom reality. The third section reports on the conflicts between the interacting components of the activity system, for

example, contradictions of the course structure of the program and the national curriculum. This section deals with contradictions between activity systems: the school and university settings. This last section is devoted to illuminating the conflicts of the two systems and how pre-service teachers experienced crossing boundaries between the schools and university.

9.2 What are contradictions?

As discussed in Chapter 4, the notion of contradictions is a key tenet of activity theory. Contradictions are inherent of any activity system and are manifested through tensions or conflicts within the elements of the activity (subject, tool, division of labour, community) or between activity systems (different objects). Using Engeström's words: contradictions are "historically accumulating structural tensions within and between activity systems" (Engeström, 1999a, p. 4). This means that contradictions are not just problems or misalignments between the components of the activity, but conflicts that have been constructed historically, that have shaped not only one activity, but the whole system, and that characterise the nature of an activity system as dynamic.

The analysis of contradictions reflects the dialectic nature of an activity system. The dual nature of the activity is given as the society/collective and the specific individuals are mutually constitutive parts of the activity (Roth & Radford, 2011). For example, in this thesis, the focus has been on the activity of learning to teach EFL in a specific teacher education program in Chile, both the national (society) and the lived experiences of pre-service teachers have been analysed. Contradictions have emerged in this context of the university coursework and the schools.

Contradictions exist at different levels. As presented in Chapter 4, contradictions come in four types (Engeström, 1987). Primary contradictions exist within each constituent component of an activity system; secondary contradictions are found between the constituents; tertiary contradictions oppose the object of the dominant activity with the object of a culturally more advanced activity; and quaternary contradictions exist between each entity of the dominant activity and the neighbouring activities (Roth, et al., 2004). In this study, as we will see later in detail, I have identified the four types of contradictions in the data. However, primary and secondary type contradictions were more prominent. Primary contradictions within pre-service teachers were manifested through their reflections on the dissonance between their conceptualisations of language teaching and the classroom reality. The secondary

contradictions that were identified from the data were between pre-service teachers and the teacher educators in relation to the object of the activity, between pre-service teachers and the tools: the curriculum and the practicum, between pre-service teachers and the division of labour. Tertiary contradictions were identified as pre-service teachers intended to be primarily language teachers at the schools, but the teacher educators wanted them to be social agents. And the most revealing contradictions identified were between the two activity settings: the school and the university. The two activities were competing all the time in relation to the object and the data showed how pre-service teachers crossed the boundaries between them.

Another reason why it is relevant to identify and analyse contradictions in an activity system, is because they can be the force that drives change in the activity. In Engeström's expansive learning cycle, when participants become aware of the contradictions of the activity and they collectively decide on a plan to transform the activity, disturbances become the force that leads to change (Engeström, 1999a). This change is not only an individual transformation, but a collective endeavour in which the whole activity is subject to transformation and being transformed. As Smagorinsky et al. observe, contradictions that lead to change "require a socially contextualized intellectual resolution"(2004, p. 22). Despite the potential of contradictions to change and transform the activity system, this transformation does not always happen. In fact, it can either enable the change or disable it. This only depends on whether contradictions are identified, acknowledged and resolved among participants of the activity (Nelson, 2002). As this study was not an intervention and because of institutional and time constraints, the participants did not make a collective decision to transform the activity. Notwithstanding, the findings of this thesis can be used as a first step for the studied teacher education program to reflect on how to improve the activity of learning to teach EFL.

The following analysis of contradictions demonstrates how individual experiences of pre-service teachers are linked to a national curriculum, an educational system and as a whole with Chilean society. Thus, the analysis suggests, as it will be shown in the following sections, that pre-service teachers were aware of some contradictions, but unaware of others. This is one of the reasons why it is important to collect different sorts of data so as to understand the complexity of the activity of learning to teach EFL. For example, some pre-service teachers attributed their difficulties of teaching English in English to their own inability, when in fact, the contradictions were somewhere else. A complex layer of factors

such as de-motivated students, a rigid curriculum, and lack of resources could be associated with that problem. This is one example that justifies the analysis of contradictions.

The following table summarises the contradictions identified in this study. They will be explored in detail in the next sections.

Table 9.1: Contradictions in the activity of learning to teach EFL in Chile

Contradiction level	Observations from the study
Collective/national level	Between the national curriculum, national policy for teacher education and the SLTE program studied
Primary contradictions/individual	Individual pre-service conceptualisations of language teaching and learning are not aligned with the actual classroom reality
Secondary contradictions/collective at the teacher education program or at the school	Pre-service teachers and the teacher educators. Pre-service teachers and the tools: the curriculum and the practicum
Tertiary contradictions/collective in relation to the object of the study	Between pre-service teachers, teacher educators and teacher mentors' views of teaching
Quaternary contradictions/collective between the school and university settings	Between the two activity settings: the school and at university

9.3 Pre-service teachers' inner contradictions

This section is devoted to the presentation of the primary contradictions identified in the data analysis. In this case, the analysis showed pre-service teachers' inner conflicts between their beliefs about language teaching and learning and the classroom reality they faced at the practicum. I will structure this section into four categories that emerged in the data analysis. The categories correspond to strong pre-service teachers' beliefs about their role as teachers and language teaching and learning. The categories are: English as the means of classroom communication and instruction, communication versus grammar oriented classes; a learner centred approach; a teacher as a social change agent.

English as the means of classroom communication and instruction

The primary contradictions occurred within the subjects and pre-service teachers with regard to their use of English between their beliefs about its usefulness and the classroom reality. The data analysis showed some very convinced pre-service teachers regarding the use of English in the classrooms, while some others were doubtful about this even before the start of the practicum. This also changed as they undertook their practicum, and they confronted reality.

> I am also doubtful, because **our goal is teaching English in English**, but I don't know what it is going to be like, so when I go to the school and see the school reality I don't know if I'll have to modify something or not. Well, **speaking Spanish instead of English. Because the students don't understand and I have seen how children sulk when they don't understand**, and then they don't want to learn any longer (S5-I).

The previous comment from pre-service teacher 5 reflects her conflict between using English in the classroom and the frustration it may cause to children. Her conflict reveals that teaching English in English could be problematic, but also that there can be opportunities of adjustment and change.

One of the assumptions of the Chilean Ministry of Education, also supported by the teacher education program, is that teachers do not use English in the classroom because they do not have a competent level of English (Ministerio de Educación, 2009a). Although recent results of national tests of teachers confirm this, in the case of the pre-service teachers of this study, it was a different story. Some pre-service teachers with a very good command of English were doubtful or struggled to use English in the classroom, the reason was not their lack of proficiency, but due to other constraints. For example, in the case of pre-service teacher five, she was very fluent and competent in English, and although she manifested her intent to use English as the means of instruction she used English and Spanish in the classroom.

> Pre-service teacher 5 gave instructions to students, **the explanations she used were first English and then in Spanish.** When students asked for confirmation checks in Spanish, she would use English first, and immediately after she would switch into Spanish. Students always used Spanish unless she pushed them to repeat a sentence or word in English (Field note 5.1).

In the follow up interview, this pre-service teacher justified her use of Spanish as a transition before she spoke only English in the class. She said that it was one way to make students feel more confident and that in that way students would not feel frustrated because they did not understand, and that little by little she will speak only English. By the end of the practicum, I asked her if she had been able to use only English in the classroom, and she said that was not possible, students did not understand enough. The case of pre-service teacher 5 was not

uncommon in the data; on the contrary, most pre-service teachers had a very advanced command of English. However they did not use English.

> **I have tried to use as much English as possible in my classes. However, I still haven't been able to do it completely**. To avoid using Spanish, I do mimicry and drawings to explain the meaning of words, until one student guesses the meaning and says the word in Spanish. I get really tired and frustrated because the next class they don't remember the meaning of the word, it makes me wonder if I should continue speaking English all the time (S3-I).

Pre-service teacher 3's observation, above, is another example of how conflicted some pre-service teachers were regarding the use of English in the classroom, but at the same time it reveals the potentiality of expansive learning. This means that this disturbance could have become an opportunity for learning as it motivated pre-service teachers to confront the conflict and find different pedagogic tools. Some pre-service teachers resolved the conflict discussing these issues with their tutors to find appropriate methodological strategies to use in their lessons. Some others were unaware of the conflict and did not face it at all.

While the majority of pre-service teachers in the study had a high level of English competence, a few pre-service teachers reported that their level of English could be the cause that impeded them to use English in the class. This finding is aligned with Ahn's study (2011) in which Korean pre-service teachers having a native like proficiency of English had difficulties using English as the means of instruction in their lessons. This author explained this as the result of "contextual constraints related to the practicum and the socialization patterns of pupils in school" (p. 253).

Communication versus grammar oriented classes

As pre-service teachers engaged in the activity of learning to teach English in schools, they connected their beliefs with theory and practical applications in the school context. Pre-service teachers' discourse regarding language teaching and learning revealed clear assumptions about how English should be taught. They repeated that the focus of the English lesson is not grammar and that a communicative approach should be used. The following observations are examples of pre-service teachers reflecting on their concepts about language teaching.

> At first it didn't make much sense to me because we were taught things like the communicative approach and I thought, **"OK, but how do I teach the language? How?" and it didn't make sense to me until last semester, when we were told things like** "no, you don't have to teach grammar, you have to teach, I don't know, vocabulary in context". Then it made a lot of sense and I hadn't noticed it until then. It was like "take in all of this" and I learnt English that way because **grammar and those things don't help you speak**. Then one does like babies do, repeating and borrowing phrases (S8-I).

Pre-service teachers' perspectives not only reflect their views regarding language teaching and learning, but also how they are forming their concepts about language teaching and learning. From the beliefs they brought to the program from their past experiences, to the new university context, and back to school again. Apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975) is one way to explain the origin of the underpinning reason of teachers' practice, but it does not look at the changes, about how these pre-service teachers endured and changed, and adapted to the new contexts.

The contradiction within pre-service teachers emerged in terms of resources of instructional activities. Despite pre-service teachers' intentions for more frequent use of communicative tasks rather than grammar oriented activities, some pre-service teachers not only struggled with the implementation, but ended up accommodating the school or teacher mentor's style, mainly using the textbook and following traditional grammar oriented tasks. This perception was shared by a significant proportion of the cohort.

> I did not have the opportunity **to implement a communicative approach**. Once I tried to do it, but my mentor teacher immediately told me that I would be better explaining the tense with all the conjugations, because they will get lost. Thinking honestly, yes, they will get lost, because **the way I teach is not the way they assess**. So I could not take the opportunity to make wonderful classes. Instead, I used the never-ending grammar method (S24-R).

A learner centred approach versus managing the classroom

Most pre-service teachers manifested their intention to teach learner centred classes. However, they struggled with classroom management and in a significant number of cases,

pre-service teachers tended to focus on controlling the class rather than on trying to promote autonomous learning. In addition, students' lack of motivation and participation in the classroom reinforced pre-service teachers' perception of learners and justified a teacher-controlled instructional practice. As one pre-service teacher reported, she felt frustrated trying to use a learner centred approach as things in her classroom get "messy".

> Another weakness I have is that sometimes I feel frustrated because of the recommendation: not to give a teacher centred class. But from my point of view, **it is difficult to have learner centred activities in my class because the students are not used to interacting with each other. Every time I make them interact they don't know how and they make a mess out of the activity** (S16-R).

A teacher as a social change agent versus a teacher of English

Pre-service teachers reported that learning to be a teacher was confronting and challenging. As pre-service teachers engaged more and more in the actual activity of teaching their beliefs were reshaped in light of the school reality. At the beginning of the semester, many of the pre-service teachers reported their idea of a teacher as a change agent. Pre-service teacher 2, for example, expressed his strong commitment to make a difference as a teacher. Later this same interviewee reflected on the complexities of being a teacher and how the school experience has made him think about teachers' work and if he really wanted to do that.

> I won't be a messiah for these kids, not at all, but I don't know, **I want to plant a seed, as many teachers did with me** (S2-I). (before the practicum)
>
> (After the practicum) **Teaching English is complex and complicated.** Now I know I can teach, but **I don't know if I want to do this for the rest of my life**. Sometimes it seems a bit futile (S2-R).

The beliefs of themselves as teachers changed as they engaged in actual teaching in their practicum. As illustrated in the data, a strong component of their teacher identity, especially at the beginning of the practicum, included concepts related to practical skills, rather than making a difference in society. The reports of their practicum showed that pre-service teachers understood that mastering teaching skills such as giving instructions, voice projection, use of whiteboard and classroom management skills were key to being good

teachers. They became aware that if they were not able to manage the class, their ideas about making a difference were inapplicable. The following quote was made when this pre-service teacher had finished her practicum. Her ideas of being a teacher and teaching had changed in the school context.

> I think that my best lessons have been with them because I do not have problems with classroom management inside of the classroom, **they enjoy my lessons and one of the best things about this is that they love to participate in class.** Therefore, what I always expect for my lessons worked out well and at the end of the class **I feel happy because students and I have fun** (S4-R).

The analysis here has shown pre-service teachers' inner conflict between their own conceptualisations about language teaching and learning, the school curriculum, and what is expected from them at the schools and at university. How did they resolve this conflict? There is not a single answer. Each school offered different challenges to pre-service teachers and in some cases they were not aware of the contradictions, or they decided to accommodate themselves in order to avoid conflict, or to comply with what was expected from them.

9.4 Secondary contradictions

Secondary contradictions are the disturbances between the different components (subjects, community, and division of labour, tools) of the activity. According to CHAT, these types of contradictions can be the source of change of the activity. The analysis suggested multiple secondary contradictions. These occurred between: (1) pre-service teachers and teacher educators, (2) pre-service teachers and school teachers, (3) pre-service teachers and the curriculum, (4) pre-service teachers and the practicum, and (5) pre-service teachers and expectations.

Pre-service teachers and teacher educators

The first clear secondary contradictions identified in the data occurred between pre-service teachers and teacher educators regarding their views of the type of teacher they were aiming at. On one hand, most teacher educators expected their graduates to be heroes and almost expected the impossible so that they could change the school reality. On the other hand, though most pre-service teachers showed a strong social commitment they were also aware that they could not change everything. The school reality presented a complexity with

different layers, some of which the teacher educators were unaware. Though most teacher educators of the program had worked at the schools in their careers, they had not done it for a long time. Therefore, for a significant number, they were disconnected from the everydayness of school reality.

Pre-service teachers commented that although their university teachers have been capable and supportive, they would have liked to have stronger guidance from them regarding *teaching English.*

> **The practicum experience could be improved if we had had tutors that had actually taught at schools and that they know the Chilean context** so that they could contribute with ideas, and activities that work in Chilean schools. Tutors who could give us tips and strategies about how to deal with problems in Chile and neither in England nor USA (GD, May 12, 2011).

Pre-service teachers and school teachers

Another secondary contradiction identified took place between pre-service teachers and school teachers regarding the knowledge and skills a teacher of English should have. On one hand, as stated in the previous section, pre-service teachers wanted to teach English in English, teach communicatively, be learner centred and educate good citizens. Whereas at the schools, the school teachers interviewed identified that a good teacher of English should be able to adapt to the school reality. As reported by pre-service teachers, for most school teachers the use of English, and communicative tasks were not necessarily important, but classroom management and other attributes were. Though the following comment from teacher mentor 2 reflects a strong view about what he expected from pre-service teachers, most other teacher mentors were ambivalent.

> **I'm really interested in the teacher's creativity.** I think creativity is necessary if they want to do something new, to make the difference, not to do the same old stuff. **That is something that really interests me.** There are some students from other universities that hand in their lesson plans after the classes are done. **I don't like it because when I receive the plans there is nothing I can do about them**, the class is already done and we are late for the next one and it's the same process over and over again, and that is not the idea. **But it's very important to me that**

> **the students are always impeccably dressed, and how they mark the difference between them and their students.** They can be 23 or 24 years old, but they are the teachers, they have to feel they are the teachers and have to be able to mark the difference…**The student doing her practicum is a teacher;** she is not of her students' age. So, it's very important that the guys and girls feel she is an authority and she has the same right … Those are the things I'm interested in**: good appearance, creativity, and teacher empowerment** (TM1-I).

At the schools, regarding teaching English, pre-service teachers had different experiences. Few experienced having teacher mentors with similar views regarding teaching English in English, and communicatively. Most pre-service teachers had different and opposing views of teaching to their teacher mentors. The resolution of the contradictions was that some pre-service teachers adopted the teacher mentor's style, some others decided to find a midway, doing some of their own activities, and in some cases doing what the teacher mentor had suggested. Some others resisted, and opposed the teacher educator's views, and tried to do what they thought was right. In two cases, this ended in the breakdown of the relationship, and they had to be changed to other teachers, or other schools.

Pre-service teachers and the SLTE curriculum

Contradictions or tensions regarding the curriculum are given by: the program goals, the course structure, and pre-service teachers' experience in the course. As discussed in Chapter 7, the written curriculum of the teacher education program showed a strong orientation towards the training of a teacher as a social agent. Though there is a generalised discourse among the participants that English is a vehicle that would allow future teachers to educate good and responsible Chilean citizens, the course structure has a big focus on the acquisition of English. English being the core of the course structure is conflicting with the program goals. The inherent contradiction emerges on one hand as pre-service teachers' entry level of English to the program is low. And on the other, it responds to a national need, in which teachers of English need to improve their English language skills.

English as the subject of teaching brings lots of challenges, especially in a context in which English is learnt as a foreign language. The program dealt with the imperative about English providing pre-service teachers with almost an immersion into an intensive two years of English. This aspect is very specific of SLTE in an EFL context, as English is the object of

study, and also the medium of communication in the classroom. English being so predominant in the course structure caused tensions among pre-service teachers and teacher educators. Pre-service teachers were under pressure to learn the language and develop their skills at an advanced level. As discussed in Chapter 8, teacher educators reported that they were aware of the pressure and they strongly believed that being proficient in the language was a must for a teacher of English. Therefore, the heavy academic load was necessary. Conversely, pre-service teachers reported that the academic load was excessive and not necessarily justified.

Another apparent tension suggested by the data analysis is the relationship between pre-service teachers and the *critical thinking approach* of the curriculum. There is a very strong discourse about how the course structure promotes critical thinking, and how this is a key characteristic of their graduates. In the interviews, some pre-service teachers were very critical about this. They manifested their scepticism regarding how critical they could actually be at the program. They said that every time they exercised their agency and criticised the program, they would be *in trouble*. This reflects the contradictory nature of instructing future teachers as critical thinkers, but being unhappy because they were critical about the program. Though in the program, I witnessed a positive learning atmosphere, the relationship between teacher educators and pre-service teachers was vertical and the division of labour was well stratified with pre-service teachers the last ones to have a voice in the program. The tension was manifested in the data in different examples: pre-service teachers criticised teacher educators as incoherent and inconsistent, pre-service teachers criticised school teachers, and pre-service teachers criticised the course structure.

The written curriculum of the program states that the curriculum is orientated to an experiential development process. School-based experiences objectives are written with those underpinning principles. However, how participants conceptualise the nature of learning to teach not surprisingly differs from the written curriculum. Teacher educators expect that pre-service teachers transfer the knowledge learnt at university to the schools.

Pre-service teachers struggled with the school reality as their first encounters with schools in a significant number was confronting. At one level, it was expected that they could understand the school reality and act upon it at the same time. Yet at another more instrumental level, many pre-service teachers had to find ways to accommodate to the school reality and in several cases do their best to survive. From the data analysed, the school-based learning experience became a hybrid space of transfer of knowledge and teaching skills development.

Another evident tension in the data is related to the academic load of the course structure, especially in relation to the balance of work between the course and the school-based experiences. From the third year onwards, the course included school-based experiences, and the academic load increased by approximately 20 hours a week for pre-service teachers. This reality caused significant tension amongst pre-service teachers. The conflict, as pre-service teachers reported, was due to the lacked of time to do the work at the schools and the work at the university satisfactorily. As pre-service teacher 4 reports, the course structure seemed unbalanced and unrealistic.

> Another thing is the relationship between the teaching practice experiences and the subjects we have at university. In the first two years we had like four or five subjects. It was relaxing. We started third year, and we had classes on Monday, Wednesday and Friday from 8:30 am to 6 pm and on Tuesdays and Thursday we had to go to the schools to do our teaching practice.... **Our academic load was too heavy.** It changed heaps from one year to the next. In fact, a few students failed in the third year **because they were not able to cope with all the pressure. The teaching practice is exhausting, third year is really hard. It is impossible to do everything well** (S4-I).

In this section, I have reported on the most prominent contradictions of the activity of learning to teach at the SLTE education program level. However, the most apparent contradictions in the data relate to the trajectory of pre-service teachers between school and university and vice versa at the moment of the practicum. Pre-service teachers, as subjects in becoming teachers, exercised their agency as teachers at school. However, when pre-service teachers enacted their agency in both the school and university contexts, they expanded their learning possibilities. They crossed borders of the school and university. They dealt with the community and rules of different settings. They moved from the university to the school trying to understand how the school system worked and also trying to make changes.

The contradictions that relate to the practicum and how pre-service teachers crossed boundaries between the school and university are explored in detail in the following section.

Contradictions between school and university expectations

The expectations towards the teaching of English at the schools is marked by four aspects: there is an emphasis mainly on teaching English with communicative purposes, the use of

English as the means of instruction and communication in the classroom, and lastly that the class is structured following a PPP structure [16]. These aspects were predominant in the discourse of the documents analysed and also reported by the participants. The origin of this has to do with the traditional classes of English in Chile, in which English was taught using Spanish as the means of instruction and the means of communication in the classroom. Repeatedly, pre-service teachers had been taught in different subjects and told the importance of not using Spanish in the classroom by their teacher educators. As seen in the previous sections, pre-service teachers questioned the rule and reflected on their own classroom realities and the use of Spanish. This questioning caused tension because this contradicted their teacher educators' expectations.

Similarly, another tension emerges around the focus of the class. Pre-service teachers were taught that the appropriate focus of an English class is not grammar. They were instructed in the use of a communicative approach. As the Chilean curriculum is focused on the acquisition of skills, they were taught how to teach listening, speaking, writing and reading, with the PPP model. There is a strong common discourse about this, that pre-service teachers should structure their lessons in this way. Therefore, their lesson plans and resultant lessons should follow that structure. This is also a cause of tension at the schools. Although there is a national curriculum to follow, how schools enact that curriculum varies considerably. Grammar is still a preferred focus in the school English lessons classrooms; school teachers have their own ways of structuring the lessons causing further conflict.

Pre-service teachers and the practicum

The school setting required different roles, tasks and expectations to be fulfilled. Conflicting roles as students at universities and teachers at the same time became more apparent during the practicum. Both roles were very demanding, and put enormous pressure on pre-service teachers. Pre-service teacher 15 below reflects on how hard for it was to fulfil the two roles. Her observation also reflects her commitment towards teaching and her self-image as a teacher.

> **I want to prepare good worksheets, I want to plan,** I want to care about teaching, but I have to read ten texts for university (S15-I).

[16] PPP structure of a lesson: presentation, practice and production suggested by Harmer (2009)

In some cases, pre-service teachers were considered students at the schools, and were not given power to make decisions about the curriculum, or assessment. Conversely, they were expected to behave and act as teachers in the classroom. Teacher mentors commented that the main weakness that pre-service teachers showed was their lack of flexibility to adapt to school reality. Teacher mentors expected that pre-service teachers knew how to act in all of the different situations they faced as teachers.

Pre-service teachers' identities as teachers contrasted with the teacher educators' view of pre-service teachers as students. Pre-service teachers did most of the job as a full time teacher, preparing lessons, tests and materials, and also teaching. Their students saw them as teachers and treated them as such; however, university teachers did not necessarily share this view. In this regard, though in the interviews most teacher educators said that pre-service teachers were colleagues, and that their role was accompanying them in this journey, they had very clear expectations of what they had to do, and how they had to be as teachers. Their actions were very directive towards pre-service teachers. In some cases, a few teacher educators did not listen to what was happening at the schools, but imposed their views on what pre-service teachers' tasks were meant to be. This lead to another level of contradictions: tertiary contradictions.

9.5 Tertiary contradictions

As discussed at the beginning of the chapter, tertiary contradictions appear between a culturally more advanced form of the activity in question and the dominant or older form of activity (Engeström, 1987). In this study, tertiary contradictions appeared mainly in two situations. First, as was discussed above, when teacher educators imposed their views of teaching over pre-service teachers, and in the end, pre-service teachers were forced to follow a specific type of method in their classes. For example, teacher educator 6 demanded that pre-service teachers under her supervision planned their lessons according to a PPP structure. She checked that on paper, and also when she observed the pre-service teacher teaching.

> **I ask them to write their lesson plans step by step.** The first stage helps them clarify their ideas - what they want to do first, in the middle, at the end. I know lesson plans are hard work, but they have to learn how to do it. In our meetings, sometimes, they tell me that the school teacher doesn't want them to follow that structure, but I insist **they have to do it; they have to be able to teach that way** (TE6-I).

The other example of tertiary contradiction identified in the data is: pre-service teachers wanted to teach English to their students as a vehicle to know the world, and the school curriculum or school teachers imposed their views on teaching. In most schools where pre-service teachers undertook their practicum, the dominant way of teaching English was through grammatical rules. Pre-service teacher 14's quote reflects the conflict when she tried to implement a more communicative approach to her teaching and how this was blocked through the school assessment.

> **My students were learning how to communicate in English**, but in the end, it didn't matter. **They had to be able to fill in the gaps** with some grammatical tenses. I had to teach them what I was told so that they scored well in the exams (S14-I).

As seen in these examples, contradictions in the practicum are given for an apparent misalignment between the views of teaching and learning English between the school and university. This causes contradictions regarding not only what or how to teach, but also regarding the roles and tasks that pre-service teachers were meant to do. The next section is devoted to elaborating the contradictions outlined earlier between the two activity settings: learning to teach EFL at the school versus learning to teach EFL at the university. Understanding the contradictions between the school and university are crucial to providing a holistic view of how pre-service teachers learnt to teach English. Pre-service teachers transited between these two settings. The data suggested that there was not a shared object, and that in some aspects the views about teaching and learning were conflicting.

9.6 Quaternary contradictions: tensions between the school and the university

By examining the activity system it becomes apparent that the activities are directed to different objects. As seen at the beginning of the chapter, pre-service teachers in this study had different motives at school compared to school teacher mentors, and university educators. Pre-service teachers were engaged in the activity as part of a compulsory task in the teacher education program. At the schools they had to adapt themselves to the school culture and the demands they had to respond to as teachers of English. They were interested in learning practical teaching skills that would allow them to act as teachers. On the other hand, school teacher mentors wanted fully formed teachers who could control students and instruct them according to the school curriculum. Conversely, teacher educators wanted pre-service

teachers who could positively influence the school culture going beyond traditional teaching practices. This reveals that the objects were not aligned.

Inevitably, the misalignment between the objects of the activity created several contradictions. These contradictions included disagreements about: (a) learnings at the practicum; (b) the overwhelming responsibilities and expectations required of pre-service teachers; (c) approaches to teaching English that did not fit into classroom practices:

a) Learnings at the practicum; the practicum as it was described by the corresponding course outline says that "pre-service teachers should be able to use all of what has been learnt and developed in the teacher education program demonstrating English proficiency and to know how to teach it" (Practicum Syllabus, description). Furthermore, the aim of the practicum states that pre-service teachers will be able to "to design and implement lesson plans suitable to the corresponding content demonstrating an appropriate level of English, appropriate use of pedagogic strategies, classroom management and critical thinking skills". This suggests that it is expected that pre-service teachers transfer the knowledge and skills provided by the course structure into the school reality. This view is coherent with the teacher educators' interviewed. They were very emphatic about the practicum as a consolidation moment in which pre-service teachers had to demonstrate knowledge and skills. This view was very different from pre-service teachers who signalled practical teaching skills as the main learnings in their practicum (see Chapter 8). Giving instructions, stating classroom rules or using the board properly are examples of skills reported by pre-service teachers. Classroom management and class methodology were signalled as the most prominent learnings in the practicum. As seen in Chapter 8, pre-service teachers manifested that classroom management was one of their major weaknesses and they expected to learn how to manage students during the practicum. Some of them finished the semester achieving this, others did not. The different views between teacher educators and pre-service teachers reflect that on one hand, pre-service teachers were expected to prove how good they were as teachers. And on the other hand, pre-service teachers were struggling to survive in the school environment.

b) As the expectations were high not only from teacher educators, but also from school teachers, pre-service teachers had to cope with the sometimes overwhelming responsibilities and tasks both at school and at university. The data revealed on several occasions how frustrated pre-service teachers felt as they had to do many things which in some cases surpassed their responsibilities as either students or teachers at the schools. An example of this is when school teachers assigned them to do additional things like teaching to other levels, or preparing materials, videos, etc.

c) Approaches to English that were not necessarily appropriate to the classroom. In this case, pre-service teachers were expected to use English all the time in the class, use communicative tasks, and use a PPP structure of the class. These expectations of language teaching in some cases were not realistic and they were contradictory to the school curriculum and school culture.

Contradictions in the practicum emerged differently in the two contexts of learning: at school and at university. In light of the data, I have become aware that to fully understand the nature of learning to teach English it is necessary to see how pre-service teachers traversed between the boundaries of the university and school context and vice versa. This became evident in the analysis as the practicum was examined. Here I refer to boundaries as "sociocultural differences leading to discontinuities in action and interaction" (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011, p. 152). This is evidenced in the lack of dialogue and interaction between the school and the university and pushing pre-service teachers to do the coordination, reflection and transformation.

Boundary crossing became a useful concept to analyse the trajectory between university and school. As Akkerman and Bakker (2011) propose, boundary crossing enriches the notion of transfer in different learning contexts. Boundary crossing goes beyond the idea of applying knowledge and skills from one context, the university, to the other one, the school. The concept of boundary crossing considers "ongoing, two-sided actions and interactions between practices" (p. 136). This means that the relationship between school and university is not engendered by the appropriateness of the curriculum of the teacher education program, and the application of knowledge at school. In contrast to transfer, however, the notion of boundary crossing urges us to consider not only how universities prepare for pre-service teachers to teach, but simultaneously how current teaching experiences of pre-service teachers

during university trajectories are exploited for learning to become a teacher of English in Chile.

9.7 Learning to teach English crossing boundaries in the Chilean context

Chapter 8 dealt with the mediating power of the practicum and the challenges that the schools brought to the learning activity. Drawing on Wenger (1998) and Engeström et al's (1995) understanding of 'boundaries' as sociocultural differences leading to discontinuity in action or interaction, I will illustrate how pre-service teachers crossed the boundaries as they engaged in actual teaching at the schools, at the program studied, and the interaction between the university and schools in the activity system of learning to teach EFL.

According to an activity theory framework, the activity system of learning to teach at school and at university comprises two activities which can be represented by the two triangles in Figure 9.1 below. The left triangle represents the activity of learning to teach at the schools from the pre-service teachers' perspective. The object of the activity is to learn how to act as teachers of English at the schools. The mediating tools are: pedagogical tools (activities), lesson structure, teaching methods (these oppose the schools' views regarding teaching, grammar based, textbook based, etc.). The rules, norms, expectations and perceptions of school are formed both historically and culturally. Pre-service teachers are expected to behave according to the conventions of the school community in which they are placed. The division of labour is given by the roles that pre-service teachers had to take as full teachers at the schools, and do different tasks that the schools imposed. The community is formed by school teachers, students, and school staff.

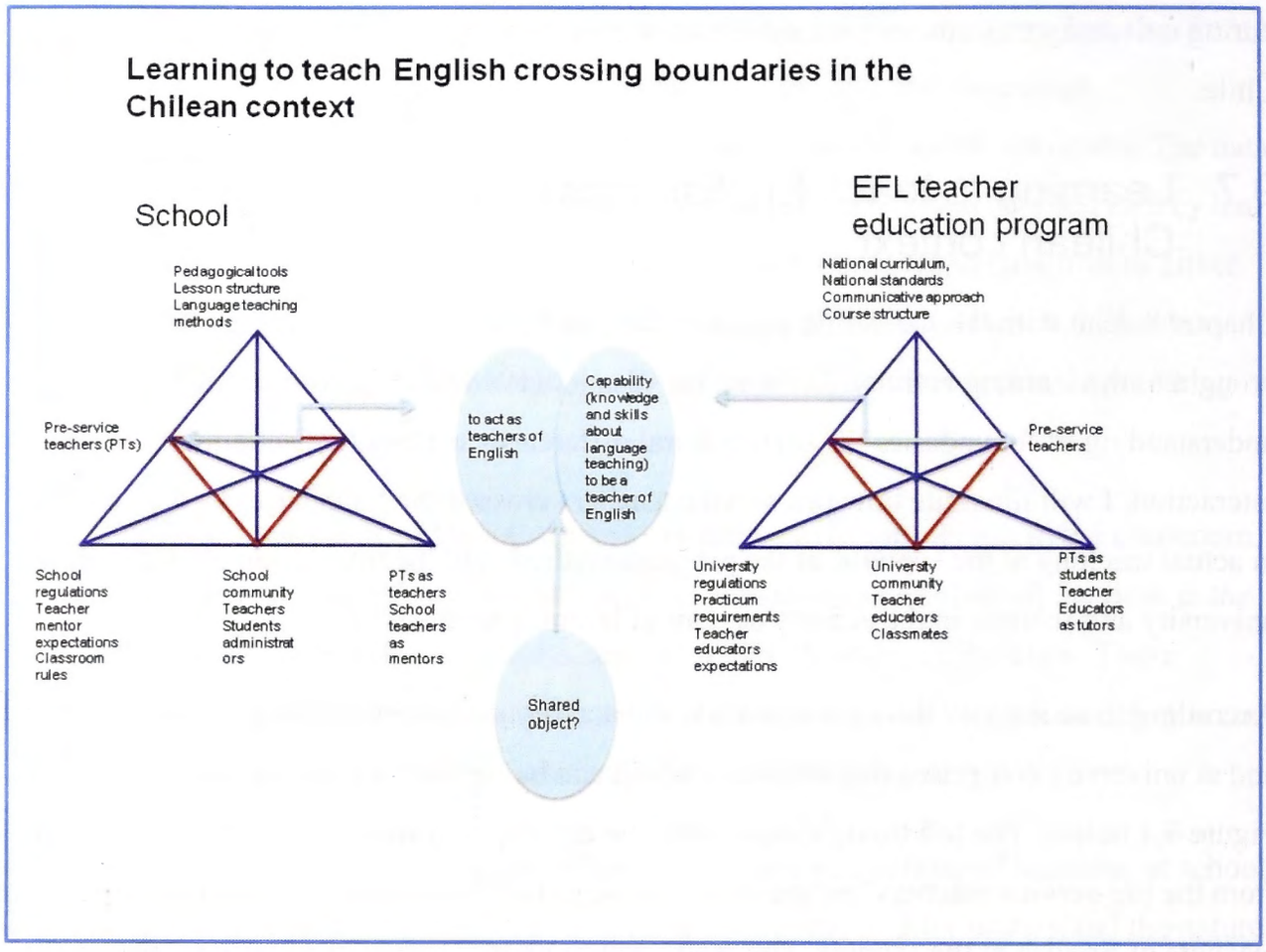

Figure 9.1[17]: Learning to teach EFL in the Chilean context based on Engeström 2001, p. 136; and Tsui & Law, 2007, p. 1293

The right triangle represents the activity at the university education program. The primary object is to gain the capability to be teachers of English with the knowledge and skills about language teaching to be competent and qualified teachers of English. The activity is mediated by the national curriculum, communicative approach, and learner centred teaching tasks. The rules are those of the teacher education program. Pre-service teachers had to follow the regulations given as students of a university program. In this sense, pre-service teachers were expected to comply with practicum requirements laid down by the university program, lesson plans with a specific structure, journal reflections, and a final report. The achievement of pre-service teachers' learning is achieved by teacher educators providing feedback on lesson planning and classroom practices, relating theory to practice, and pre-service teachers enacting the lesson. Although in both activities the goal-directed actions of pre-service teachers are the same, they are subordinated to different motives. One is to ensure that their

[17] It is important to note that Figure 9.1 is the same representation as Figure 6.3. While in Chapter 6 it was used to demonstrate how the analysis was made, here it is described and explained thoroughly as part of the findings.

pedagogical practices conform to the teacher mentors or school expectations, and the other is to conform to the teacher educator and the university's expectations. Hence they are two distinct activities.

From the above analysis, we can see that when the two activities interact through pre-service teachers' participation, the multiple perspectives, and multi-voicedness are inherent in the interaction generating contradictions. As discussed in Chapter 4, the concept of multi-voicedness refers to the multiple points of view, traditions and interests represented by the community present in the activity system. In this study, multi-voicedness was given by the different views amongst teacher educators, school teachers and pre-service teachers.

Pre-service teachers needed to operate in two different systems with two different, though related objects. Their own learning as teachers was their primary object, but their object was different from the teacher educators', and school teachers'. Pre-service teachers found ways to work around the contradictions by adapting to the different setting. The reports and my observations confirm how pre-service teachers changed their teaching styles and discourse according to whether they were at a university seminar or if they were at school in the classroom. The following observation of pre-service teacher 22 reflects the conflict she faced.

> **I know I am supposed to do lots of things different at school from what I was taught at university**, however, it is not that simple. My supervisor doesn't understand what the children are like and that my teacher mentor puts a lot of pressure on me. In the end, I do whatever to have a peaceful lesson, and that kids are quiet and don't complain (S22-I).

Teacher educators and school teachers rarely worked collaboratively to offer advice to pre-service teachers on classroom teaching. If this were the case, there would be a third space in which there was a shared intention to help the pre-service teacher with his/her teaching. In most cases, school teachers, were not concerned about the learning of pre-service teachers. In fact, in most cases, the school teachers were imposed with the mentor role and they struggled to know what to do with the pre-service teachers. They were hired at the schools to do their jobs as English teachers, and did not have any contractual agreement with the university. Consequently, most of them were interested in ensuring pre-service teachers covered the school curriculum, and that the classes flowed smoothly without many behavioural problems. Some school teachers accepted the role as mentors to have some free time. Some others were

interested in pre-service teachers providing them with some new activities, some new audio-visual material, but almost none of the school teachers interviewed or observed were interested in the learning of pre-service teachers.

The dominant motive shaping the activity during the context of the practicum, as it was examined in this study, appears to have been different from those associated with the university. Once the pre-service teachers were placed into the school context, different rules, tools, participants, and motives dominated this context—they were no longer closely tied to the education program. The school administrators, national curriculum, school curriculum and school teachers helped establish the dominant motives of the activity in each pre-service case. In most cases, the dominant motive was to teach English effectively (as the community expected) and to cover curriculum content. Most schools positioned and shaped pre-service teachers' beliefs about language teaching similar to their own. This context for learning to teach had the potential to further shape pre-service teachers' beliefs, learning, use of different pedagogic tools, and develop a professional teacher identity. This was more likely to happen in the schools where pre-service teachers were regarded as teachers in the classrooms by teachers, administrators, and students.

In the program however, pre-service teachers were regarded by teacher educators as students or learners of teaching. Often differing roles, expectations, and motives were set in each of these contexts with regard to carrying out the same activity- teaching English. Most pre-service teachers tried to balance simultaneously their university role, tasks and teaching approaches with the school context. Pre-service teachers crossed boundaries and negotiated their identities interacting with the members of the different contexts. This finding confirms what previous studies (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011; Jahreie, 2010; Luebbers, 2010; Tsui & Law, 2007; Wenger, 1998) have evidenced regarding learning to teach, that is, that crossing boundaries carries learning potential. The social nature of their learning is given through the interactions and negotiations pre-service teachers do every time they cross the boundaries. However, as seen in the data, this can also be the cause of frustration and disappointment. Here I see a need to continue exploring in which ways pre-service teachers learn crossing boundaries.

9.8 Conclusions to the chapter

This chapter has mapped out the most salient contradictions in the activity of learning to teach EFL in the studied teacher education program. The analysis has revealed pre-service teachers' inner conflicts as they faced their own beliefs with reality; the tensions between pre-service teachers' views of teaching and the community, together with the curriculum of the program and the practicum. Lastly, the contradictions between the schools and university contexts were analysed. I also outlined how pre-service teachers learnt crossing the boundaries of those settings.

The identification and discussion of the contradictions in this chapter has made it apparent that many of the disturbances were not resolved at the time of the study. The contradictions between the school and university settings reflected the different motives of the participants and communities that are part of these contexts. Confronting the contradictions and resolving them would be a collective effort that should involve pre-service teachers, school teachers, and teacher educators. This collective endeavour could potentially end up with a shared understanding of the type of teacher of English needed for the schools, and a suitable training for future teachers. Otherwise, if contradictions are not confronted, pre-service teachers would continue finding their own ways to avoid conflict resulting in them feeling unsure and not confident of suitable pedagogical practices.

Some systemic contradictions in the Chilean system of education contribute to aggravating some conflicts and leaving unresolved issues. As discussed in Chapters 2 and 8, pre-service teachers are not supported at the schools as there is not a regulated centralised system either from the university or the state. Schools regulate themselves and it is a voluntary system to cooperate with the universities. Consequently, there is no supported mentoring system. Individual universities, as the ones studied, have attempted to implement training for school teacher mentors with little success. There are no incentives, neither monetary, in time, or in academic recognition for school teachers to become teacher mentors. At the same time, universities have tried to work with some schools to develop closer ties. However, there are no real incentives or consistent agreements either from the university or from the schools.

This chapter sought to contribute to the understanding of learning to teach as a boundary crossing activity. In light of the data, I showed how pre-service teachers crossed boundaries and negotiated their way to become legitimate members of each community. I demonstrated

that crossing boundaries is a challenging task that has a potential for enhancing learning. Pre-service teachers can learn different identities and overcome difficulties. As they traverse from school to university and vice versa, however, it needs attention and training from both schools and universities. From this analysis I am inclined to support Tsui and Law's (2007) assertion that states "teacher education programs should not only be concerned about how much pre-service teachers know or whether they have acquired transferable skills, but more importantly, whether they have developed the capability to engage in expansive learning by confronting disturbances through crossing boundaries" (p. 1300). This is also relevant for the Chilean context in which teachers have to constantly traverse different classroom contexts and teaching views. It is highly necessary that they learn how to confront the contradictions and resolve them.

The next chapter will put all the findings together and the research questions will be answered. The limitations of this study and suggestions for further research will be presented in the next chapter. In the final chapter, I will attempt to give some recommendations to SLTE programs in EFL contexts in Chile as one way to continue with the improvement of how pre-service teachers learn to teach English.

Chapter 10: Conclusion

10.1 Introduction

This thesis has explored the nature of teacher learning with a specific focus on SLTE in Chile. This examination has been developed through a research study that sought to explore how a group of late stage pre-service teachers learnt to teach EFL in a Chilean teacher education program. My primary concern has been to understand the social activity of learning to teach EFL from the pre-service teachers' perspective. In this final chapter, I will first discuss the contributions of this study in relation to the main research question raised in the introduction chapter: how do a group of final stage pre-service teachers learn to teach English in a Chilean EFL program?

In addition, I will attempt to also discuss the broad implications for my secondary questions:

- What motivates pre-service teachers to engage in learning to teach EFL?
- In which way does the curriculum of the SLTE program mediate pre-service teachers' learning?
- How do pre-service teachers appropriate theoretical and practical tools?
- How do school-based experiences and specifically the teaching practicum impact on pre-service teachers' learning to teach English?
- How does the practicum shape pre-service teachers' emerging identities?
- What tensions and contradictions emerge in the school-university partnership?

Then, I will discuss the methodological contributions of the thesis, guided by the question: how does CHAT illuminate the complex dialectical interplay between EFL pre-service teachers and their social contexts that shape how they learn to teach EFL?

At the conclusion of the chapter I will address some implications of this study and some challenges for SLTE together with some recommendations.

10.2 Answer to primary research question

As discussed in Chapter 3, recent research on the nature of teachers' learning in SLTE has demonstrated that teachers' learning is shaped by the social activities in which they engage (K. E. Johnson, 2009). Therefore, in responding to the research question of this study it needs to be acknowledged that the object of the study is complex and required a determined focus on learning to teach EFL as an activity. In exploring the activity of learning to teach EFL, I examined the social domain of learning: pre-service teachers' motives, their actions and the mediating tools that shaped how this group of pre-service teachers of EFL learnt to teach in a teacher education program in Chile.

First, this study has shown how the group of pre-service teachers learnt to teach is an activity in which they, as subjects, exercised their agency. Their actions were firstly driven by their personal motives, which were subsequently shaped and shared by the rest of the community they belonged to, the tools they used and the interactions of the school and university settings in which learning took place. This evidence was considered using the illuminating prism of the sociocultural strand in SLTE literature.

Second, as the activity of learning to teach EFL was the unit of analysis, a complex activity system with different layers emerged. The activity of learning to teach EFL appeared to be a network of interrelated activities defined by the settings where the activities took place. As discussed in Chapter 6, the first activity identified from the research study took place at the SLTE program mediated by its curriculum. Pre-service teachers' actions were orientated by the acquisition and development of knowledge of English and language teaching skills offered by the course structure of the program with its courses, lectures, and school-based experiences. The second activity, as reported in Chapter 8 was developed at the schools where pre-service teachers undertook their teaching practicum. Pre-service teachers' actions were oriented to act as teachers. The practicum worked as a mediating tool in the development of their professional teacher identity. This finding confirms the findings of studies undertaken variously by He (2013), Dang (2013), Luebbers (2010), and Tsui and Law (2007) among others.

As demonstrated in Chapters 7 and 8, learning to teach EFL at the university and at the schools related dialectically. The dialectic nature of the activity system was framed by the interplay of the national context, the school and the university context, and the individual

dispositions of pre-service teachers. This means that the different factors including the school culture, the goals of the program, teachers' beliefs, and rules impacted directly on how pre-service teachers appropriated pedagogical tools and enacted the curriculum at the schools. All these factors shaped what and how they learnt, and in this study the complexity of the activity was apparent.

This complexity was engendered by the different layers and inherent contradictions of the activity. As explored in Chapter 9, contradictions were apparent at different levels in the activity. At the interpersonal level, contradictions appeared as pre-service teachers confronted their conceptualisations of language teaching and learning with the classroom reality. At the intrapersonal level, the data revealed how the different participants (teacher educators, school teachers and pre-service teachers) of the activity had different views of language teaching and learning. At the institutional level, contradictions emerged as the school community challenged the university community fighting over predominance. In this scenario, pre-service teachers managed to comply with both the school expectations and the university requirements. They learnt to teach by crossing boundaries between the school and university contexts. These findings confirm the outcomes of the work by Jahreie and Ottesen's (2010) primarily in relation to the contradictions and object of the activity. The contradictions of the two settings reflect the complexity and dynamic nature of the object of the activity of learning to teach EFL.

The data analysed revealed that the object of the activity of learning to teach EFL was complex. It comprised: acquiring the English language, gaining knowledge about language teaching and learning, forming concepts about language teaching and language methodology, developing teaching skills, and forming a professional teacher identity. This complex object can be summarised as a "fully formed teacher", or in other words, competent teachers of English for the Chilean school system. The data showed that a fully formed teacher is a teacher of English who is able to teach English in English, communicatively, with a learner centred approach, a critical thinker committed to social justice.

The idea of a fully formed teacher, as previously defined, revealed to be an internally contradictory object. The data demonstrated how pre-service teachers needed not only to be able to adapt to the school reality, but to be able to change it. This object became the true motive of the activity of learning to teach EFL offering considerable challenges to the pre-service teachers and the teacher education community as a whole. While pre-service teachers

struggled to become legitimate participants of the school community, they were also compelled to transform the social practices they were engaged in at the schools. Teacher educators and the university community expected that they had appropriated some principles of communicative language teaching and critical thinking, and were able to enact them at the schools at any cost.

As anticipated at the beginning of the chapter, the answer of the research question that guided this study implied a deep exploration of participants' motives and actions. This examination revealed that the interplay of the curriculum of the program and the practicum mediated what pre-service teachers learnt and how. An overall finding in this thesis is that how pre-service teachers relate the curriculum of the teacher education program to the classroom reality is dialectical and dynamic. This means that the teaching practicum becomes a potential source of expansive learning. In the same vein, I can conclude that learning to teach EFL crossing the boundaries between the teacher education program and the schools is a complex challenge since the historically developed boundaries between the two activity systems appear rigid and isolated.

The next sections discuss the findings regarding the impact of the interplay of the curriculum and the practicum on pre-service teachers' learning.

10.3 Answers to secondary questions

Learning to teach EFL at the university coursework level

Three secondary research questions were answered in Chapter 7. What motivates pre-service teachers to engage in learning to teach EFL? In which way does the curriculum of the SLTE program mediate pre-service teachers' learning? How do pre-service teachers appropriate practical and theoretical tools? These questions relate to how pre-service teachers learn to teach at the university mediated by the curriculum.

The curriculum mediated pre-service teachers primarily in two fundamental ways. First the curriculum provided them knowledge and skills about the language and language teaching. Second, it also provided teaching-based opportunities that facilitated their learning process. As seen in Chapter 7, the curriculum of the program provided pre-service teachers' theoretical foundation to understand school and classroom reality. The curriculum intended to shape their identity as qualified teachers proficient in English. This identity as a fully formed teacher

which includes knowledge of English, a teacher capable of teaching English, but also a teacher who is a critical thinker and wants to end social inequity. This expectation of what the pre-service teachers should know and be, worked as an ideal imagined view of a teacher for the pre-service teachers.

The driving force of an activity system is its object (Gay & Hembrooke, 2004). I argued in Chapters 4 and 9, that the object is the ultimate reason why people do what they do (Kaptelinin, 2005). The analysis of pre-service teachers' motives into teaching (presented in Chapter 7) showed that they enrolled in the teaching program mainly interested in learning the English language, and only later, as part of the university course they found out what teaching was and engaged in the teaching profession, developing a teacher identity. By the end of the coursework, most pre-service teachers manifested that they were highly interested in teaching English, and they understood that acquiring the language would not necessarily be sufficient for teaching the language.

It is not a surprise that most pre-service teachers' first motive into teaching EFL was English. This is consistent with the literature of teachers' learning in EFL contexts, such as the studies of Luebbers (2010) and Sakamoto (2004), in which participants manifested a passion towards a foreign language and culture. Their interest in English over teaching also explains why most of them considered being proficient in English as the most important characteristic of a good teacher of English. However, pre-service teachers by the end of the practicum expressed their commitment to teaching, not only as a way to transfer a passion towards a foreign language and culture, but also as a way to use the English language as a vehicle to critically see the world. I argued in Chapters 7 and 8 that the change and development of pre-service teachers' motives reflects how they negotiated different identities as teachers of English in the different contexts they were immersed in: the university and the schools. The curriculum of the program shaped their motives.

The examination of the curriculum of the SLTE program revealed the tension between the content knowledge and the pedagogic knowledge. This is reflected as there is a great emphasis on the language subjects, whilst there are several school-based experiences in which they are expected to transfer and apply the knowledge and skills acquired in the program. School-based experiences had a very relevant role in the course structure and were seen as key for learning to teach English. These experiences aimed not only at the integration of theory into practice, but also to the development of teaching skills. Though the curriculum of

the program can be characterised by a developmental approach because of the graded school-based experiences, it also contains a very strong component on transmission and transfer. It was expected that pre-service teachers transferred the knowledge they had acquired at university in the school context without much questioning or adaptation.

School-based experiences challenged pre-service teachers' knowledge and theories learnt at the university coursework. This finding is coherent with some other studies such as the one undertaken by Cheng et al. (2009) who demonstrated that the school setting brings up questions to the theoretical underpinnings provided at the teacher education program. The knowledge base worked as ideal theoretical and practical resources for their teaching that they made use of in classrooms as they could. However, teacher educators expected them to use what they had learnt during the university coursework. It was assumed that learning to teach would come with experience, and they had to endure the process. Little scaffolding was provided regarding school-based experiences, and teacher educators expressed their frustration when pre-service teachers 'copied' what school teachers did, despite the training they had received.

Pre-service teachers appropriated knowledge and skills in different ways. As discussed in Chapter 7, the data analysis of the data revealed that the different level of appropriation was given by the negotiation between pre-service teachers' individual agency and their social engagement into the activity. Moreover, in that chapter I argued that the data demonstrated that university courses shaped pre-service teachers' knowledge about language teaching and contribute to an identity as a language teacher. This finding is aligned with some previous studies such as that by Clarke (2008) who demonstrated in his study that the teacher education program had a direct impact not only on changing pre-service teachers' beliefs but also contributing directly to the construction of teachers' identity.

The curriculum provided pre-service teachers with practical tools and knowledge about language teaching, but the appropriation of this knowledge and skills was strongly shaped by situational contexts. Learning to teach EFL as shown in the data was not a simple, straightforward activity but a confluence of the pre-service teachers' personal histories, the culture of the school where the pre-service teachers teach and the nature of the pre-service teacher education program. This finding reveals that there are other factors that shape how teachers learn to teach EFL. The next questions explore how the practicum is a powerful

setting that can shape the ways in which pre-service teachers appropriate pedagogic knowledge (Grossman et al., 2000; Newell, et al., 2001).

Impact of the practicum on pre-service teachers' learning

The practicum was considered by the participants of the study as the most important activity that contributed to learning to teach. This confirms a vast number of studies which state that the practicum is crucial in teacher education (Atputhasamy, 2005). The practicum in the studied teacher education program follows a hybrid model which has incorporated elements from the applied science model, communities of practice and master apprentice model (see Chapter 3). This hybrid has resulted in usually random school placements without a systematic collaborative work between schools and universities.

The practicum experience revealed that although each school was a very different environment and that because of that each experience became unique. The school played an important role in shaping pre-service teachers' learning. The school community, especially, the school teachers and students, did not necessarily share the views of teaching and learning, but in some way, these opposing views made pre-service teachers question their views, the program and the school. Consequently, the result of their views of teaching is an interaction of the different conceptions of teaching and learning as they were engaged in the activity of learning to teach EFL changed as well.

As I argued in Chapter 8, it is difficult to separate the activity of learning to teach EFL from learning to be a teacher (Lave & Wenger, 1991). This argument is supported by the data which revealed how in the process of becoming a legitimate member of the teaching community at school (Akkerman & Meijer, 2011), they learnt to teach as they committed themselves to learning teaching strategies, experimenting with various methodologies and challenging themselves as teachers. The data showed a significant number of clear examples illustrating how pre-service teachers developed a professional teacher identity as they engaged in actual teaching. The teaching practicum provided pre-service teachers not only with an opportunity to learn about the school culture, but also the practicum shaped a self-image as teachers in that school setting. It was not only how they saw themselves as teachers, but also how other members of the community saw them and interacted with them as teachers or as student teachers at the schools. This finding confirms Varghese et al's (2005) argument that

identity is context bound and that identity is formed and negotiated through language and discourse.

The dialectical nature of identity construction was given by a continuum from interpersonal to intrapersonal processes. I argued in Chapter 8 that pre-service teachers attempted to become legitimate members of the school community, not only adapting to the school culture but also trying to change the practices at school. Here the dialectical relationship between identity and agency was clearly in evidence (Roth, et al., 2004). Through the practicum, pre-service teachers learnt about the school, students, teachers' practices, as well as about themselves. Pre-service teachers formed their identity in the very engagement with the actions they had to do and performed as teachers at school. Being a teacher became a meaningful life project, or at least the rudiments of the search for one. The activity of becoming a teacher revealed challenges and conflicts that pre-service teachers had to face. They learnt to interpret and internalised what it takes to be a teacher.

Emerging identities shaped by the practicum

My contention is that teacher identity is a complex phenomenon that is not fixed, that is multiple, shifting, in conflict and developed in social activity. The exploration of the data presented in Chapter 8 revealed how pre-service teachers negotiated multiple identities bound to the context, activities and the community they were interacting with. Although pre-service teachers' negotiated multiple identities, two were the most prominent in the classroom setting: the English teacher and the social agent.

Most pre-service teachers' actions in the practicum aimed at acquiring teaching skills that contributed to their performance as teachers in the classroom. Even more, during the seminar sessions they constantly requested assistance and guidance to manage different classroom problems. I interpret this as a way to consolidate their identity as English language teachers. As pre-service teachers faced the classroom every day, they had to find effective ways to act as a fully formed teacher. Other signs of their emerging identities were their behaviours within the school environment. As observed in schools, pre-service teachers unanimously adopted personas as teachers. Visible aspects of this behaviour were forms of dress, language, and others manifestations related to professionalism (like punctuality and a pro-active attitude towards work).

Another emerging identity that emerged from the data analysed was the view of the teacher as a social agent. Pre-service teachers expressed their intentions to become teachers who influence their students beyond the English language. This emerging identity as a social agent was apparent in both the interviews and also in observations during the practicum. Pre-service teachers made an effort to not only teach English effectively, but also to become educators. This sometimes conflicted with the demands of language teaching, especially regarding the use of English in the classroom.

The practicum was not conflict-free for the pre-service teachers. On the contrary, as Franzak (2002) observed "the practicum experience is often stressful for pre-service teachers because they encounter dissonance between their preconceived views of teacher and what they observe in the field" (p. 260). This was also the case of this study in which pre-service teachers perceived the dissonance between the school and the teacher education as reality shock. The next question examines the tensions and contradictions of the activity.

Tensions and contradictions in the school-university partnership

In Chapter 9, the examination of the data revealed the inherent contradictions of the activity of learning to teach EFL. This analysis illuminated the mutually constitutive planes of the activity: personal, interpersonal, and societal. Pre-service teachers' individual perceptions contrasted with the teacher education program and the school community together with the social, cultural and historical context of Chile. The study revealed that the contradictions between the school and university partnership emerged from the very beginning. Indeed, in most cases there seemed to be a lack of a true partnership.

Pre-service teachers' participation in each setting mediated their ways of thinking, learning and acting like teachers, leading to tensions among differing motives, approaches to teaching English, and teaching tools used for teaching English. As a result, some pre-service teachers had the opportunity to problem-solve, to critically reflect upon their learning, their teaching and teaching situations, and to (re)create and work toward developing identities as different types of teachers. In some other cases, this lead to considerable frustration and disappointment.

In Chapter 9 I demonstrated that the teacher education program and the schools have overriding motives and were misaligned to one another. This coincides with previous studies that have studied the university-school partnership (Tsui & Law, 2007). This finding supports

the argument that it is not enough that pre-service teachers have school-based experiences as part of their training, but the implementation phase is crucial so that it really contributes to teachers' learning.

The identification and discussion of the contradictions in Chapter 9 has revealed that many of the disturbances were not resolved at the time of the study. Confronting the contradictions and resolving them would be a collective effort that should involve pre-service teachers, school teachers, and teacher educators. This collective endeavour could potentially end up with a shared understanding of the type of teacher of English needed for the schools, and a suitable training for future teachers.

10.4 CHAT and the dialectical interplay between pre-service teachers and the social context

As this thesis intended to understand learning to teach EFL from multiple, interrelated levels, it illuminated different aspects and contexts of the activity. This elucidation was facilitated by the CHAT perspective adopted in this thesis. First, learning to teach was seen as a social and historical activity represented by two main activities given by the settings of the SLTE program and schools. In exploring the activity, the analytical focus was on the processes involved in the program from the pre-service teachers' perspective. The main analytic emphasis was on how pre-service teachers' development of knowledge base and identity formation were constructed and how this was culturally and historically dependent.

The theoretical concept of learning as an activity with interrelated components: subjects, objects, tools, community, rules, and the division of labour provided a rich framework for a multi-level analysis. The analysis showed how the different planes: the national, the SLTE program, and the lived experiences of pre-service teachers interrelated and mutually shaped one another impacting on the activity of learning to teach EFL. The analysis of the components of the activity revealed the complexity of the activity, their interdependence and an understanding of the relation between the collective and individual learning.

The understanding of the relation between collective and individual learning was shown as the different levels of the activity were explored. The analysis showed how the object of second language teacher education was somewhat dissonant from the SLTE program and from pre-service teachers' understanding. This analytical emphasis makes it possible to demonstrate

that objects are made sense of and used in different ways across different settings and

planes. Through this study I have built upon the existing knowledge of CHAT and applied activity theory as an analytical framework in a novel context.

The main methodological contribution of this thesis relates to approaching learning to teach EFL from a holistic perspective, with a particular emphasis on pre-service teachers' learning as a social activity set in the university coursework and the schools. This is a different orientation to studying learning to teach EFL from a number of studies in the research on SLTE and as part of a growing and emergent body of literature. As accounted for in Chapter 3, most of the studies on learning to teach EFL have been micro-oriented studies focusing on individual learning.

10.5 Implications

Implications for the Chilean context

The findings of the reported study suggest that there is a need to rethink the way in which future teachers of English are educated. I concur with Ormeño (2009) that the acquisition of the English language knowledge was more prominent. This study showed that it is only in the last part of the process where pre-service teachers are required to show evidence of their development as both language learners and teachers, many times without much success. Thus, I identify four main implications for the Chilean context. These are unresolved questions that have emerged in the analysis and need to be addressed to make improvements to how teachers learn to teach in Chile. However, the following are not ready-made solutions for the SLTE program studied, but key aspects to consider for reflection.

First, the study revealed that the program and schools are two activities with very different objects, divisions of labour, rules, and communities. Each of them orientates their work to different outcomes. However, given that as learning to teach EFL is not an isolated activity done by pre-service teachers, it is necessary to construct middle paths that bring together the experience of the schools with the university. From a national perspective, the program *English opens doors* (see Chapter 2) could help organise university and school partnerships. This could be done with the underlying assumption that teacher education is a broad social commitment, as stated by the participants and documents analysed, and not the sole responsibility of particular universities. Furthermore, based on the findings it is suggested that the Ministry of Education and university programs support schools as places for school-based experiences where pre-service teachers learn more than teaching English according to a given

curriculum. In this regard, and going further, perhaps nationally, the Chilean Education Ministry could investigate a practicum model for teachers which establishes tasks, and roles for both schools and universities. Of course this is very difficult to implement currently, but there should be the will and commitment to do it given the clear discordance identified in this study.

From the teacher education perspective, the school-university partnership could construct spaces for reflective practices in the two settings. It is recommended that both schools and universities acknowledge, respect and value their expertise and look for ways to collaborate in the teacher training process. Teacher educators and school teachers can work in small groups and develop new tools to work with pre-service teachers, as case studies or a professional teacher portfolio. From the pre-service teachers' perspective, they could elevate their mission as future teachers and commit themselves to work collaboratively with both teacher educators and school teachers and participate actively at the schools.

Second, the findings suggest that there would be substantial benefit if school teachers and university teachers are formally trained as mentors. Although training does not guarantee that they will become mentors, it can work as a starting point of a shared understanding of the object of the activity of learning to teach. As revealed in the study, school teachers and teacher educators mediated pre-service teachers' learning, therefore, their role should not be undermined, and conversely, it should be enhanced by supporting their work with better working conditions and a supported formal system to mentor pre-service teachers, both at the schools and at university.

Third, the SLTE program could consider some critical curricular models such as Norton's (2005) or Kamaradavileu's (2012) and organise their course structure in a way that allows pre-service teachers more time to reflect on their own teaching practices. This could be achieved if there is a more balanced structure between learning English and the educational disciplines. From the analysis, it seems that the academic load tended to be overwhelming for pre-service teachers pushing them to do too many things at the same time. This sometimes led to a superficial level of task achievement. It also undermined their capabilities as future teachers and consolidated a dependent relationship with the program. Both critical models presented in Chapter 3 advocate for a critical stance towards the knowledge base and methods of language teaching and learning. They argue for teacher training that enables future teachers

to become social agents in their communities. This seems to be more aligned with the goals of the program.

Fourth, the SLTE program could implement more development opportunities for their graduates and novice teachers. The community as whole could commit themselves in the improvement of teacher education. A systematic program on professional teacher development can offer further opportunities for graduates on pedagogic content knowledge and can also be an opportunity to enrich and tighten the ties with school teachers.

Implications for SLTE literature

The findings of the present study have confirmed that learning to teach EFL is a complex activity. This activity is shaped by the settings in which pre-service teachers engage in learning to teach EFL (K. E. Johnson, 2009). Clearly, the schools and the university coursework play an important role on teachers' learning. In an EFL context like Chile, the university coursework is the place where pre-service teachers learn English. This implies that to focus on how teachers learn the language at the university setting is key as this is a source for their own future pedagogical practices. The school setting provides future teachers a contextual pedagogic knowledge that reveals the complexity of the teaching task. Though there is an increasing body of literature on the role of the practicum in teachers' learning to teach EFL, there is still a need to illuminate the interactions and mutual collaboration between the school and university settings, especially in EFL contexts.

The analysis of different planes of the activity contributes to a holistic understanding of how teachers learn to teach EFL. As shown in this study, the analysis of the Chilean educational system, together with the SLTE program including its curriculum and school-based experiences, and the lived experiences of the participants provided a better understanding of how complex SLTE education is in an EFL context. This type of analysis illuminates the tensions and contradictions between the different activities and factors that shape the learning experience. It reveals that participation in shared activities is the necessary condition for people to achieve mutual understanding, but not enough to achieve transformation. In order to capture the complexity of how teachers learn to teach EFL, SLTE would benefit from multilevel analysis on teachers' learning.

The different levels of appropriation of theoretical and pedagogical tools exhibited by pre-service teachers evidenced that concept formation is fundamentally cultural and dynamic and

conflicting in nature (Smagorinsky, 2013). As demonstrated in this study, pre-service teachers' development of concepts about language teaching was given by the appropriation of cultural practices both at the schools and at the university. Clearly, pre-service teachers struggled to apply communicative language teaching principles at schools, as was expected by their teacher educators. Pre-service teachers accommodated their notions of good language teaching according to the class and school requirements. This finding implies that the appropriation of concepts of good language teaching is not a linear task and it is context bound. Thus, SLTE would benefit from further research on how teachers construct and develop concepts.

10.6 Limitations and suggestions for future research

Several limitations need to be acknowledged in this present study. I recognise that the rich descriptions and thorough examination of the data presented here are not enough to claim that learning to teach EFL is uniform across Chile or the world. It is recommended that further studies are undertaken in different teacher education programs in Chile that contribute to revealing the particularities of the Chilean context. Although it was never meant that the findings of this study could be generalisable to other contexts, it is expected that they serve to be useful to the SLTE program studied, to the Chilean Ministry of Education, and to SLTE literature as one further step into the understanding of how pre-service teachers learn to teach EFL.

Some further limitations of this study can be identified regarding the examination of learning in the school-university partnership. Firstly, it was difficult to follow pre-service teachers' movement from one setting to the next one, not only because of geographical or spatial distances, but also because each setting manifested its own culture. At the schools, I was seen as a strange academic and it was difficult to recruit school teachers who were willing to participate in the study. Secondly, each school was different, therefore each time I visited a new school trust with the school community had to be gained. In this sense, it would be desirable to undertake a longitudinal study that considers the transition of pre-service teachers between the university and the schools in different moments. Longitudinal research studying pre-service teachers' historical transformation would capture the complexity of teachers' learning more accurately. In the same vein, further studies examining how after graduation teachers change their knowledge base would provide more insights into contextual factors shaping teachers' learning.

Another limitation of this study is the use of activity theory as a heuristic. Although it has proved to be useful for understanding the activity, this has been not been without challenges. As the unit of analysis was the activity of learning to teach, this meant that the activity was considered at university and at the schools. This made the data set and subsequent analysis more complex. Making sense of the different layers and factors of the activity was sometimes overwhelming making it difficult to manage to communicate the findings. In this sense, further research is needed in developing more robust analytical tools with a CHAT perspective.

Another avenue for further research is related to further understanding the activity of learning to teach EFL. This study made visible the need to make an intervention in SLTE in Chile and introduce new tools of communication and understanding to improve teacher education. A study that researches the implementation of a new tool (such as a teacher portfolio or a joint lesson plan) that contributes to a better transition between the universities to schools would benefit teacher education programs. In the same vein, further research is needed in the area of supporting school teachers and university teachers as mentors.

10.7 Concluding remarks

As presented in Chapter 1, the aim of this study was to explore how a group of final stage pre-service teachers learnt to teach English in a Chilean SLTE program. The background of the study lies in, on one hand, my personal interest to understand and support how prospective teachers learn to teach, and on the other hand, this study has been inspired by the research on the literature that has claimed a need to understand how teachers learn and how the conditions of learning are created in Chile.

As seen throughout this thesis, the answer of the research question (How do a group of final stage pre-service teachers learn to teach English in a Chilean SLTE program?) has raised more questions than clear answers. This reveals the complexity of the phenomenon studied and the need for further research. Despite the limitations of the study, I can reasonably conclude that learning to teach EFL can be productively considered as a complex social activity in which pre-service teachers learn to teach as they engage in meaningful activities to become active members of a professional teaching community. In light of the data analysed in this thesis, it is reasonable to assert that learning to teach EFL is the result of the confluence of a set of factors: personal experiences as learners, teacher education curriculum and

pedagogy, teaching experiences, and personal commitment, which are dialectically related. The major contribution of this study lies in its illumination of how a group of pre-service teachers learnt to teach in a Chilean teacher education program. The findings of the study affirm the contention that well designed teacher education which is effectively integrated with practicum experience has an expansive learning potential.

The current study has demonstrated the power of CHAT as an explanatory tool in recognising individual, social, and contextual factors that shape the nature of teacher learning and their instructional practices. This is the second contribution of this thesis. Specifically, activity theory as an analytical framework proved to be helpful in exposing particular factors that afforded and constrained pre-service teachers' learning. Thus, activity theory contributed to shed light into the dialectic nature of teacher learning and its contradictory dynamics between national educational policies, teacher education programs, between theory and practice, and between pre-service teachers' views and classroom reality.

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Appendix A: Interview questions

This appendix outlines a series of discussion starters and questions used for a set of semi-structured interviews conducted with pre-service teachers, teacher educators and school teachers. The interviews took place between March and May 2011.

Interviews to pre-service teachers

Thank you very much for making time for this interview.

I'm Malba Barahona, a PhD candidate at the Australian National University and I invited you to participate in this study because I'm studying how pre-service teachers learn to teach and your view, as future teachers, is of a great value to this study.

All the information about the project is in the information sheet I sent you, and that you can read now if you haven't. And please if you have any questions don't hesitate in asking. If you agree, please sign the consent.

So, you have been studying here for 5 years, haven't you?

What brought you into teaching? Anything special that influenced your decision of studying to be a teacher

Then what has been your experience like as a student teacher? What have you liked most? What haven't you liked?

What are some of the things that have enhanced your learning of how to teach English? Can you give examples?

What are some of the things that have impeded your learning of how to teach English?

What's your relationship like with your classmates?

What ways do you work/ study with your classmates?

What has been the impact of the practicum on your learning?

What activities do you usually do as part of your teaching practice?

Where do you see yourself going from here- what are your future plans?

What else would you like to share about your experience of learning how to teach English?

Interviews to teacher educators

Hi, thank you very much for making time for this interview.

I'm Malba Barahona, a PhD candidate at the Australian National University and I invited you to participate in this research because I'm studying the experience of Pre-service Teachers learning how to teach English and your view as a teacher educator is of a great value to this study.

All the information about the project is in the information sheet I sent you, and that you can read now if you haven't. And please if you have any questions don't hesitate in asking. If you agree, please sign the consent.

So, how long have you been teaching future teachers? Have you worked at other schools/Universities?

What do you think it is your students' experience of learning to teach like?

What struck you as different about the experiences your students have as compared to other places?

What do you think are some of the things that have enhanced your students' learning? And which ones have impeded students' learning?

What's the impact of the practicum on students' learning?

What sort of activities do students do as part of their teaching practice?

What's your relationship like with your students?

In which ways do you work with your colleagues?

If your institution could do anything to improve the learning experience of your students, what would it be?

Where do you see your students when they graduate?

Interviews to teacher mentors

Thank you very much for making time for this interview.

I'm Malba Barahona, a PhD candidate at the Australian National University and I invited you to participate in this study because I'm studying the how pre-service teachers learn to teach and your view, as teacher mentors, is of a great value to this study.

All the information about the project is in the information sheet I sent you, and that you can read now if you haven't. And please if you have any questions don't hesitate in asking. If you agree, please sign the consent.

How long have you been a teacher mentor? Have you worked at other schools/Universities?

What do you expect pre-service teachers be and do here at the school?

What do you think it is the pre-service teachers' experience of learning to teach like here at the school?

What's the impact of the practicum on pre-service teachers' learning?

What do you think are some of the things that have enhanced pre-service teachers' experience? And which ones have been obstacles??

What sort of activities do pre-service teachers do as part of their practicum?

In which ways do you work with the pre-service teachers?

How do you work with the university? How do you collaborate with the university teacher educators?

If your institution could do anything to improve the learning experience of your students, what would it be?

Where do you see the pre-service teachers when they graduate?

Appendix B: Observations

Observations of pre-service teachers teaching or acting in the schools assigned to undertake their practicum and interactions with teacher mentors, and in the local context.

- The questions that I attempted to answer through the observations were:
- What are they doing and why?
- When possible I asked about:
- Their working spaces (teaching room, office)
- Social spaces and facilities
- Resources available (ICT facilities, equipment, etc.)

Their perception of how their work fits into the work of the institution as a whole.

Observation Fieldnotes

Participant:		**Time:** **Place:**
Observation Event:		
Descriptive Notes: Activities: what is he/she doing?		**Reflective Notes: Why is she/she doing it?**

Appendix C: Self-reflection reports

The following are three examples of the self-reflection reports that pre-service teachers wrote after their practicum. These reports were used in the analysis.

S1-June 2011-Practicum Final Report

Strengths:	**As general view about my first practicum I can say that I felt a lot of support from my tutor and mentor. I have learned that is very important as trainer teacher feel supported and guided from someone who is already aware of certain educational problems and also could know how to tackle them.** **In terms of my own teacher performance I would say that I handled in a good way every challenge at school such as disruptive students, time organization, students learning problems and lack of students' motivation. I think that my strong point is facing every class with energy and enthusiasm because as teacher I transmit those feelings to my students and they are very perceptive as well.**
In the future:	This experience will guide my future teacher performances in order to take into account how essential is has a positive attitude when I give classes. Besides, it will be very useful remember the importance of enjoy what I do by the time I get used to the routine of being a teacher.
Weaknesses:	As a general view my weaknesses are mainly focused on how to follow schools rules. It is a little bit difficult for me because there are many rules that teacher must follow according to the educational system which the school offers. For instance, it is still very difficult for me deny students permission to go to the bathroom or be strict in terms of students discipline. I am still too "soft" in relation to it and sometimes I make mistakes because of my lack of concern about those rules.
In the future:	This experience will helps me in order to be aware of how important is follow certain codes and rules at schools because in that way teachers keep an order within the school. Besides, it will be very useful learn how to interpret school codes to create a sense of community with the rest of my co-workers.
Opportunities:	As a general view in terms of opportunities I can say that within this school I have had the chance to use different ICT`s resources in order to provide my students with good visual and didactic classes. For instance, there is a data which helps me to show attractive images, ppt presentation, and videos. Throughout this resource I can catch my students' attention in a better way and also vary my classes' performance.
In the future:	This experience will helps me in the future in order to know how important is show to my students a variety of activities which allows different students styles within the class. It is also will helps me to avoid teacher centre classes because they feel willing and motivated to participate actively.
Threatens:	As a general view in terms of threatens I can say that I was afraid of failure this process because of the lack of time and University exigency. However I realize that when I enjoy and love what I am doing I can achieve every goal, no matter how difficult it could be. This semester had been very demanding in terms of academic performance, but I realize that I can handle it if I do my best.
In the future:	This experience will helps me in order to be preparing by the time new challenges arise in my professional road.
Conclusion:	
As a conclusion I can say that as trainer teacher I really have to pay attention to little details that can make the difference in my teaching performance later. I felt supported by my tutor and that made me feel more confident when I had to handle some difficulties such as students behaviour, classroom management, and so for. Finally, I have to bear in mind that as a teacher I will pass through a complex learning process and always I am going to be challenged by my work because it is basically to deal **with diverse scenarios every day.**	

My general impression about this first practicum is truly positive. From different fronts, the university, the school, the students and myself, I received the feedback that today makes me feel as a teacher, a good teacher.

First, my tutor was an excellent backup in every sense. She became a facilitator of my practicum by correcting my planning and ideas, giving me good ideas for my classes, listening to my problems and giving positive feedback which allowed me to improve during this term. Compared to previous experiences, this term I felt accompanied and supported which gave me the confidence that I wasn't alone in this process.

Second, my mentor was a threat and a facilitator at the same time. He gave me the space to experiment in the classroom, do the classes I wanted to do, create my own material (for which he congratulated me in many opportunities), and apply my own classroom management and much more. But he also behaved in a way sometimes that made feel insecure and troubled, by correcting me in front of the class and not giving me real feedback about my classes (just a random" I liked it" or "I didn't like it"). He also interrupted my classes by talking to students or me about silly things, but I cannot ignore the fact that he did many good things to support my learning.

Third, the students were another important factor in my practicum. At the beginning I was really scared because the second week of classes the complaint about my lack of classroom management, and the other class was pretty rebellious, but at the end they were all loving and respectful. In 10° grade they are quite calm and lovely because they have a homosexual classmate who actually affects the general classroom mood. The other class, 11° grade are only 20 girls, and they behaved like adult women, but we had such connection in terms of taste and age that I can gladly say that we had a lot of fun together. The silence was a big issue with the girls but compared to the good rapport we had and their academic achievement it was a minor detail.

Fourth, the staff of the school was not an irrelevant factor in my practicum. They were all nice and respectful with me which made me feel comfortable and secure in my working environment. Within the staff I would like to mention my colleagues and classmates from the university, who were a tremendous support in this experience. To share ideas, materials and feeling with them helped me go through this period of my life with such comfort that I would always remember having them as colleagues.

Fifth, I have to talk about myself (which is always the hardest part). I am pleased and proud of myself this time, compared to previous experiences, this time I'm truly happy with my performance. I started with many fears and 0 confidence, but when the time passed I found all the strength I have within. I improved my classroom management, my creation of materials, my planning, my methodology and much more, thus today I think I'm much more of a teacher I was last year.

The hardest challenge was the classroom management. I applied all the methods I knew and some my teacher gave me, for example stand up in silence at the front, write them in the book, talk in private with the student, and many more, but at the end the magical solutions was

lovingness. Students felt such appreciation for me that made each other shut and holy solution.

The biggest challenge I had, and I think I mentioned previously, was to achieve learning. My methodology is fun, interactive and motivational classes, and the big problem is to improve learning within all the fun. But after many evaluations I found out that my students did much better because the type of assessment I applied was different. In a grammar focused test they do poorly but if I do a communicative assessment they perform very well in general. Is that good? I think it is, because my classes are communicative, then the assessment is coherent and they actually achieved learning.

Finally I can confirm my first statement "My general impression about this first practicum is truly positive". I feel more confident, more prepared and as a teacher, most likely a good one. I will work in high school, that is certain, and after this first practicum I am even surer and decided than ever.

S18-June 2011Final practicum report

Strength:

With respect to this important concept, I would say that I drew a great strength from this final practicum. Due to the great support provided by my teachers, I consider that I achieved a good classroom management. Furthermore, I gained an essential confidence about my teaching practice.

There were many instances where I could express new methodological ideas. I do not mean that I created new strategies, I just came up with some and my teacher allowed me to put them into practice. Such attitude, freedom let me made mistakes, but also succeeded. This outstanding up and down process made me see the relevance of what was happening. I was becoming an educator. This was the first time I was making my teaching practice real. But the best thing was that "the class" was my own class. Such feeling of ownership made me grew up as a unique person, student but more than that as a professional. Thus, I felt sure about what I was doing.

As a consequence, I can say that the main concept of success in life is confidence. Nevertheless, this important life learning would not have being possible without my supporters: teachers and my classmates who were my colleagues from the very first time.

Opportunity:

About opportunities I really do not know if I can say that much. I strongly believe that people cannot trust them. Sometimes there are many, but sometimes they never come, so I prefer do not wait for them. In my final practicum, I had a very important opportunity to improve as an educator. This chance was offered by my school teacher who let me discover myself as a teacher. Unfortunately the school did not support her enough about it. Despite getting many obstacles, I could take advantage of it thanks to my mentor.

Weakness:

If I have to explain my weaknesses in my final practicum I would mention my desire to improve. Such felling has been one of my obstacles since I was a student. However this became more important when I wanted to be a teacher.

Since the very first time I wanted to be a good teacher. I do not think this has to do with success but with life's goal. I chose to be an educator to make people discover the world through a language and in that way find their happiness. Owing to my life´s goal it is that I had to improve every day. It did not have to do with me, but with my future students who deserve the best teacher ever.

This was not an easy task. I fact, every day there were different challenges to face but after all to relish. I consider this attitude a challenge because it made me blind sometimes. There were many times where I could not see how good I was doing with my teaching because of my desire to improve. This weakness has become the next challenge to get over.

Threat:

To be very honest, I do not know what to write about it. I consider that the threat I can mention about my final practicum has to do with the school itself. In addition, this institution does not allow students in their trainee develop well. The school is just focused on its own requirements. There is not a support behind. It just takes advantage of you. No matter what your role in that place is.

Fortunately, I think I could deal with it in a very good way. I was totally aware about it, but I did not permit any interference in my learning process as a future language educator.

Appendix D: Group discussion

Summary of the group discussion that took place on May 12, 2011 with the full cohort of pre-service teachers.

What is the purpose of the practicum?

- It is absolutely necessary to go through this to become a teacher.
- To learn how to face real life situations inside the classroom
- To get previous experience
- Get immersed into school life
- To achieve a psychological training before we graduate. To face real context of the school in that way deal with things.
- To learn how to deal with stressful situations. To cope with them before you have a mental break down.
- To receive feedback from tutor, mentor and students.
- To practice knowledge, all the things we have learned at the university and put it into practice.
- To make mistakes in planning, classroom management.
- To get like an educational boot camp. Dealing with real situations, things you are not presented here at the university, the books, parents, school norms. The real deal, like a boot camp.
- Try new ideas, and then put them into practice if they are successful

What do you want to learn in this practicum?

We want to learn:

- Classroom management
- Teaching strategies for everything, like more tips
- How to deal with difficulties, with parents,
- How to deal with unmotivated students,
- How to deal with health problems in the classroom, first aids
- How to deal with discipline, misbehaviour
- How to deal with an earthquake
- How much a teacher earns at school, minimum wages
- How to keep silence
- How to deal with disruptive students
- How to deal with large number of students
- How to recover students attention
- How to deal with students with special needs
- How to assess students with special needs
- How to check students' understanding
- Strategies to deal with students with special needs
- How to deal with the classroom book,
- Practical things about school administration, attendance,

- How to deal with unmotivated students,
- How much a teacher earns at school, minimum wages

What can you do to make the practicum more successful and fulfilling?

We can:

- Organize time in a better way
- Try to do things in time
- Try to do both things well, the school and university.
- Share experiences with your peers
- Talk and cry
- Ask for strategies and tips
- Search for strategies/tips on the web, books,
- Self-reflect on our own experiences, our own practicum
- Self-Reflect on the type of teacher you want to be
- What kind of role model would you have? Classes with real teachers
- Ask for help to the teacher mentors at school
- Talk about the problems you are dealing with at school, and at the university

What can the university do to make the practicum more successful and fulfilling?

The university can:

- Select good schools for our practicum, and not just send us to the schools that need assistants.
- Be more flexible with attendance to university lectures
- Allow students to choose the school and levels for their practicum
- Give more time to focus on the practicum rather than on some university subjects.
- Offer more useful feedback.
- Give tips/ strategies about how to deal with problems in Chile neither in England nor USA.
- Give students more time.
- Demand schools not to do things we are not supposed to do e.g. replacing teachers
- Protect us, back us up. Support us.
- Assign some courses to talk about our experiences at the practicum, so that we can share some of those experiences and get some support from the university teachers and exchange experiences on how to overcome those situations.
- Organize curricula in a different way so that now in this semester we don´t have literature classes or any other classes. These subjects could have been so much earlier.
- Organize things that in this semester we could have a maximum of 3 classes Taller de reflexion, and the 2 methodologies
- Have teachers that have actually taught at schools and that they know the Chilean context so that they can contribute with ideas, and activities that work in Chilean schools. Teachers that are working at schools
- Teachers with more time to support us at the schools.
- Tutors that can give qualified feedback, more balanced feedback. Not just general comments "You are on the right track". Not only comments about the use of English, but about how we can improve our teaching or about how we feel or how we see what's happening in our classrooms. We don´t want any more corrections on grammar, we want more compassion.
- Offer in the last year one specialization in terms of the level you want to teach when you graduate, i.e., elementary, high school or adult.

Appendix E: Information sheets and consent forms

Information Sheet to pre-service teachers

May I invite your voluntary participation in a research project about EFL teacher education in the Chilean context? This invitation follows the agreement from your Vice Chancellor that (university name) participates in this research project.

The aim of this research is to illuminate the activity of how pre-service teachers learn to teach EFL in Chile. And if you agree to take part, I would like to:

- interview you in person (40 minutes);
- spend at least one day shadowing you/observing you at university and/or school; I intend to carry out observations of pre-service teachers acting in their practicum. In this respect I will shadow pre-service teachers' day at school.
- invite you to participate in a group discussion (90 minutes).

The interview and group discussions will be audio recorded. This information will remain confidential to you and me. The transcript of the taped interview and group discussions will be available to you. I will invite you to indicate whether there are any sections of the transcript that you wish to amend. I will also send you a summary of key findings, when this is available.

Your participation is voluntary. You may **withdraw** from this research project at **any time and at any stage**. Should you withdraw, all data relating to your interview will be removed from the research, and the material deleted from the electronic and physical records.

Ethics approval for this project has been received from the ANU Human Ethics Committee (protocol 2010/309). You will be asked to sign a Consent Form before the interview.

I would welcome the opportunity to meet with you. If you agree to this request please reply to this email and I will arrange a convenient time. In Chile you may contact me at 56023930600

Yours sincerely,

Malba Barahona
PhD Candidate
The Australian National University
Phone: +61 (0)2 61252698(direct)
Mobile:0430295454

Dr Margaret Kiley
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If you have any concerns or complaints about how the research is conducted ,please contact the ANU Human Research Ethics Committee's Secretary or phone +61 (0)2 6125 7945 or by email to: human.ethics.officer@anu.edu.au.

Information Sheet to teacher educators/ school teachers

May I invite your voluntary participation in a research project about EFL teacher education in the Chilean context? This invitation follows the agreement from your Vice Chancellor that (university name) participates in this research project.

The aim of this research is to illuminate the activity of how pre-service teachers of EFL learn how to teach in Chile. And if you agree to take part, I would like to: interview you in person (40 minutes);

Through this study I seek to answer the following questions:

- How do pre-service teachers engage in the activity of learning how to teach English in the Chilean context?
- How has the activity of learning how to teach EFL changed in Chile?
- What are the social practices pre-service teachers engage in to learn how to teach EFL?
- What appears to be enabling and impeding pre-service teachers to learn how to teach English?
- How do pre-service teachers understand how to learn how to teach EFL?

The interview will be audio recorded. This information will remain confidential to you and me. The transcript of the taped interview will be available to you. I will invite you to indicate whether there are any sections of the transcript that you wish to amend. I will also send you a summary of key findings, when this is available.

Your participation is voluntary. You may withdraw from this research project at any time. Should you withdraw, all data relating to your interview will be removed from the research, and the material deleted from the electronic and physical records.

Ethics approval for this project has been received from the ANU Human Ethics Committee. You will be asked to sign a Consent Form before the interview.

I would welcome the opportunity to meet with you. If you agree to this request please reply to this email and I will arrange a convenient time. In Chile you may contact me at 56023930600.

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Consent Form

☐ I .....

(Please print) consent to take part in the Research Project, entitled: **EFL TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE CHILEAN CONTEXT**

☐ I have read and understood what is involved in my participation in the EFL teacher education in the Chilean context research.

☐ I am aware that I can withdraw my consent to participate at any time during the project.

☐ I agree with the measures taken to assure the security of any data I generate and to ensure my anonymity.

☐ I agree to be audio or video recorded.

☐ I allow the researcher to use the data (interview, observations) to be published in her thesis, conferences and published papers on the on the condition that neither my name nor any other identifying information is used.

Signed ..... Date .....

School permission request

Dear School Principal,

This letter is to ask your permission for me to approach English teacher mentors and student teachers who work in your school and request interviews, and observations. I am undertaking research towards a PhD at the Australian National University. My topic is English as a foreign language teacher (EFL) education in the Chilean context. I intend to illuminate the activity of learning to teach EFL. I hope that in time this research will be of some benefit to the sector and to (name of university).

School Students will not be part of this study. For this project I aim to interview pre-service teachers and teacher mentors, and facilitate group discussions with pre-service teachers. I also intend to carry out observations of pre-service teachers acting in their practicum. In this respect I will shadow pre-service teachers' day at school, and classroom observations will be excluded. The name of the school will remain anonymous, as will names of interviewees.

Subject to your agreement, I will approach the head of the English department to coordinate actions so as to recruit participants and seek their informed consent to provide an interview, discussions and observations. Their participation is voluntary and interviewees may withdraw at any stage of the research process. Should you yourself be interested in participating in this project I would also welcome that interview.

In the course of the interviews, discussions and observations, participants are likely to mention cases that illustrate personal views. This information will remain confidential. The transcript of the taped interviews and discussions will be available to the interviewee, who may indicate whether there are any sections of the transcript that require amendment.

Ethics approval for this project has been received from the ANU Human Ethics Committee (protocol 2010/309).

I would welcome the opportunity to meet the community of your school. This research will enable me to explore a long standing interest in EFL teacher education. This study will provide a holistic view of initial teacher education in a Chilean institutional setting. This perspective will contribute to the understanding of the field of EFL teacher education and consequently it will contribute with a framework of evaluation and alternatives for improvement of EFL teacher education. I will contact your office within the week to follow up this letter and ascertain if you agree that (name of university) participates in the research project. In Chile, you may contact me at 56 56023930600

Yours sincerely,

Malba Barahona
PhD Candidate
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Phone: +61 (0)2 61252698(direct)
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Appendix F: Data samples according to thematic analysis

Data Sample 1: Pre-service teachers' interviews

Data collection instrument	Themes	Codes	Data sample	Frequency
Pre-service teachers' interview	Motives into teaching	Interested in learning English	I enrolled because **I wanted to learn English well and travel**. (S9_I)	10 sources-30 references
		Motivated to be a teacher	I always knew that **I will be a teacher, English came later**.(S3_I)	5 sources-10 references
	Beliefs about teachers and teaching English	Good teachers are change agents; Becoming an educator	I **want to be a good teacher**, not just one who teachers grammar rules. **I want to influence kids**.(S4-I)	15 sources 50 references
		Good teachers of English have a good command of English	A good teacher of English **has to be super good in English**. Otherwise, you are nothing. (S5_I).	
		Good teachers command a wide variety of good teaching skills	I would like to teach with using different techniques **that can suit my students' needs**. (S10_I)	
		Good teachers do not focus on grammar	A good English class **is not focused on grammar**. The main thing is that **students can communicate.** (S6_I)	
	Future goals	School teachers (at public schools)	As I graduate I want to work in an under-resourced school. (S10_I)	15 sources 20 references
		EFL teacher educators	My aspiration would be to become a teacher educator and contribute to future generations of teachers.(S2-I)	
		Other unrelated jobs (translators, hotel service, Spanish teacher in USA)	I don't know if teaching is for me. **I will try other jobs.** (S3-I)	

	Curriculum-course structure	Meaningful activities: school-based experiences, discussion seminars (3rd year), English, methodology classes, and some different courses Obstacles: heavy academic load, rules Experience as a student Theory vs. practice Knowledge appropriation	What has made me understand what teaching is has been the school based practices together with the discussion seminars.(S5-I) **There is not time for anything**. The academic load is ridiculously heavy.(S8-I) I haven't applied much of what I learnt. It doesn't work.(S12-I)	15 sources 60 references
	School-based experiences Practicum	Seeing teacher's role	At schools I have seen different types of teachers, but **a teacher's role is to be an educator.** (S14-I)	10 sources 20 references
		To be a teacher A path to be a teacher	In this practicum I want to be in control, to be the teacher of the class, not just the student teacher.(S13-I)	15 sources 100 references
	Relationships with the SLTE community	Good role models Committed and hardworking classmates A supportive atmosphere	Some teacher educators here **are great teachers**. The best of all is that **there is good rapport** (S9-I). We are a good bunch. We have overcome lots obstacles and we will become good teachers. (S13-I)	15 sources 30 references

Data sample 2: Teacher mentors' interviews

Data collection instrument	Themes	Codes	Data samples	Frequency
Teacher mentors' interviews	Purpose of school-based experiences and practicum	Learning experience to get familiar with school reality and develop teaching skills	We have to make them understand that **it is necessary that a teacher goes through this experience**; that we also had to live it.(TM1-I)	8 references 4 sources
	Type of teacher they are educating	A functional English teacher		
	Their roles in pre-service teachers' learning	Assistants Role models	**I try to be as close as I can,** and inspire them to be good teachers of English (TM2-I)	2 references 2 sources
			They are the teachers so I don't intervene in the classroom. **I just assist them** when it is absolutely necessary.(TM4-I)	2 references 2 sources

Data sample 3: Teacher educators' interviews

Data collection instrument	Themes	Codes	Data sample	Frequency
Teacher educators' interviews	Expectations for pre-service teachers' future jobs	School teachers at public schools	**I see them working in the public sector**, especially in underfunded schools. (TE3-I)	5 sources 8 references
	Type of teacher they are educating	Social change agents; English teachers	We expect that our graduates **are socially committed to the school community** and make a difference there. (TE8-I) Our graduates can speak English and teach English in English. (TE5_I)	8 sources 10 references 4 sources 5 references
	Meaningful learning activities of the program	English classes; Critical thinking-reflection; Discussion seminars; Methodology classes School-based experiences	Apart from the English courses they have, the most meaningful activities are **the school-based experiences**. These are supported and complemented by the **language methodology**	8 sources 10 references

		Teacher education program community	**courses and the discussion seminars.** (TE2-I)	
	Obstacles for pre-service teachers in the program	Pre-service teachers' previous experiences as learners; Institutional constraints	Their experiences as language learners have been awful. They haven't developed the necessary metacognitive skills to learn to learn.(TE3-I) Casualisation of teacher educators: **I think we would be better if we had more teachers with contract.** Yeah, because there is no time to discuss anything. Our students are the ones who don't receive the necessary support and attention.(TE6-I)	6 sources 8 references 8 sources 12 references
	Purpose of school-based experiences and practicum	Crucial in learning to be a teacher. Opportunity to put knowledge into practice	School based experiences and the practicum do not only give an opportunity to apply what they have learnt, but also **makes them see the school reality and become teachers. They need to act as teachers at schools.** (TE5-I)	8 sources 15 references
	Their roles	Supporting role; Critical friends, facilitators	It isn't that I address them like "I'm the supervisor teacher, so let's be formal", no, they treat me as someone they know and we write**... we work as a team.** I don't think they are doing their Practicum on their own; **we are all involved in the process**.(TE8-I)	8 sources 10 references

Data sample 4: Pre-service teachers' self-reports

Data collection instrument	Themes	Codes	Data sample	Frequency
Pre-service teachers' self-reports	Purpose of the practicum	Reality shock; Opportunity to learn teaching skills; A chance to put in practice what has been learnt	**The school is where** you can really know if this job is for you.(S5_R) During the practicum is when we can apply	25 sources 200 references

		what we have been taught at uni, and also learn new stuff on how to teach (S6_R).	
Learnings at the practicum	Teaching skills: use of whiteboard, voice projection, classroom management. Language teaching techniques: use of English, tasks, games, vocabulary strategies, grammar.	I improved my classroom management, my creation of materials, my planning, my methodology and much more. (S15-R) This experience has **helped me to know how important is show to my students a variety of activities** which allows different **students styles** within the class. It has also helped me to avoid teacher centre classes because they feel willing and motivated to participate actively.(S19-R)	25 sources 231 references
Constraints	Teacher mentor; Unmotivated students; School curriculum	I can't stress enough that the main weakness at this school is the bad **conditions/facilities and lack of resources and inappropriate learning culture.** No one wants to be here. (S13-R)	21 95 references
Affordances	Good teacher mentor relationship; Flexible school curriculum; Positive atmosphere	**My mentor was an excellent backup in every sense.** She became a facilitator of my practicum by correcting my planning and ideas, giving me good ideas for my classes, listening to my problems and giving positive feedback which allowed me to improve during this term. (S15-R) Luckily, the members of this community are **very welcoming and caring**. Everybody seems united and working together in order to improve the school. In our case, English teachers (mentors) have been willing to help; they give feedback and support quite a lot.	17 76

			They all let us be part of the team, change things, do new things, and so on.(S14-R)	
	Emerging identities	A language teacher (I know English, I can teach English; I am a non-native speaker of English); An educator as a change agent (I can make a difference)	What do I have? I have English, it shouldn't be **so difficult to learn it" and teaching it** .My idea was to share my good experiences, because I felt a bit lonely, I wanted to play with others, share what I was doing with other people (S2-R). I want my students to think and help them become good people. English is just a means.(S5-R) .	25 45 references

Data sample 5: Field notes

Data collection instrument	Themes	Codes	Data sample	Frequency
Field notes 1 **Observations of pre-service teachers in discussion seminars (8 weeks)**	Actions	Engaged in the seminar (discussing, participating, reading, etc.) Disengaged from the seminar activities (marking tests, studying, playing computer games,)	Pre-service teachers form small groups and debate about Giroux text (Fieldnote1U-April 5th) The lecturer is showing a video while some pre-service teachers are marking tests, and others doing different things on their laptops.	6 sources 10 references 8 sources 12 references
	Interactions	Peer-peer; pre-service teachers-teacher educators	The session is organised in such a way that pre-service teachers interact among each other discussing in small groups.(FieldnoteU, May 6)	8 sources 30 references
Field notes 2 **Observations of pre-service teachers at the schools**	Actions	Planning lessons, preparing class material, teaching, attending meetings	She is in the library wearing formal clothes. Before going to teach her class, **she reviews her lesson plan, practices the questions** she will ask her students aloud. **She organizes her material** and before the ring bells she walks	10 sources 15 references

			into her classroom. (Fieldnote5- May 3)	
	Locations	Classrooms; teachers' lounge; others	Pre-service teacher 11 arrives few minutes late to his classroom because he was picking up the data show and loudspeakers. The mentor sits at the back of the classroom. (Fieldnote6- April 12)	10 sources 10 references
	Interactions	With teacher mentor, other teachers, students, peers.	She writes the goal of that lesson on the board. She speaks English most of the time, though her students respond to her in Spanish. The teacher mentor arrives late and cooperates asking students to pay attention (Fieldnote8- May 23)	10 sources 12 references

Data Sample 6: Group discussion

Data collection instrument	Themes	Codes	Data samples	Frequency
Group discussion	Purpose of the practicum	Reality shock Opportunity to learn teaching skills Training for resilience	**To get like an educational boot camp**. Dealing with real situations, things you are not presented here at the university, the books, parents, school norms. The real deal, like a boot camp.(GD)	1 source 5 references
	Expectations	Learn different teaching skill Understand the school community Be a competent teacher	**Teaching strategies for everything.** How to deal with difficulties, with parents, with unmotivated students.(GD)	1 source 10 references
	Constraints	School curriculum Teacher mentors Disruptive students Personal difficulties	The university can select good schools for our practicum, and not just the schools that need assistants.(GD)	1 source 8 references
	University	**Teacher educators with no knowledge about**	**Teacher mentors that have actually**	**1 source**

	support	**school reality** **Ineffective schools** **A heavy academic load**	**taught at schools and that they know the Chilean context so that they can contribute with ideas, and activities that work in Chilean schools. Teachers that are working at schools(GD)**	**12 references**

Data sample 7: Document analysis

Data collection instrument	Themes	Codes	Data samples	Frequency
SLTE program curriculum	Goals	Type of teacher; competences	Formar un profesor de inglés, que sea capaz de integrar la docencia de su asignatura con la formación integral de sus alumnos, apoyando su desarrollo personal, su proyección social y su responsabilidad cívica; propiciando actitudes y valores que fomenten la tolerancia, la equidad, el respeto y la solidaridad.	1 source 20 references
	Organised activities in the SLTE program	Courses Activities	En primer lugar, se busca la formación general mediante la **incorporación de los alumnos(as) a un conjunto de ramos del bachillerato de filosofía y humanidades,** con el objeto de aumentar la capacidad de reflexión personal sobre su propia vida y el mundo social, y mediante el acceso a algunos saberes instrumentales como expresión escrita y matemáticas. El segundo objetivo es mantener durante **los dos años un acercamiento a la educación que permita mantener viva la reflexión vocacional** y asumir maduramente la decisión de ser profesor(a). Por último, durante estos dos años el acercamiento al idioma inglés es intensivo y se dedica a su aprendizaje el 50% del tiempo.	1 source 15 references
Course outline: practicum	Goals Activities	Competences Actions; tools	Diseñar e implementar planes de clase de acuerdo al contenido establecido para el curso específico donde realizarán la práctica, demostrando un manejo apropiado del inglés, uso apropiado de estrategias, classroom management, capacidad de auto-crítica y de reflexión crítica de las prácticas de aprendizaje del desempeño profesional	1 source 10 references

			docente en los establecimientos educacionales	
Course outline: school-based experiences	Goals Activities	Competences Actions	Es así como las "Experiencias Laborales" buscan, dentro de la etapa de formación de los futuros profesores de Inglés, el contribuir a una formación orientada al desarrollo de experiencias profesionales efectivas y vinculadas con la realidad educacional concreta.(p.1)	1 source 14 references
Accreditation policy for teacher education programs in Chile	Goals Activities History	Competences Actions	La calidad docente de los egresados se demuestra en primer lugar cuando los educadores y educadoras disponen de los conocimientos y de las capacidades que les permitan enfrentar las tareas y resolver los problemas propios de su esfera de trabajo. Pero, en forma más importante, la calidad docente se demuestra cuando los educadores ofrecen evidencia de uso en su desempeño docente de ese conocimiento y capacidades. Para juzgar la calidad de la evidencia ofrecida es necesario disponer de criterios sobre aquello, que en un contexto de significaciones y valores compartidos sobre la educación y la docencia, consideramos como una práctica docente ejemplar.(p.2)	1 source 120 references
National curriculum of English	Goals History	Instrumental use; economic drive; skills Changes	El dominio de un Inglés básico e instrumental no sólo entrega valor agregado a la formación general, sino que es indispensable para aprovechar las nuevas oportunidades laborales que ofrece la internacionalización de la economía chilena. Las personas que manejan este idioma tendrán más posibilidades de acceder a un empleo, de obtener una mejor remuneración, de lograr becas en el extranjero, de navegar por Internet, de comunicarse con personas de otros países y otras culturas, entre otros múltiples beneficio. (p.285)	1 source 30 references

Appendix G: Documents

SLTE curriculum of the program studied

Nombre de la carrera	Pedagogía en Inglés, menciones en Enseñanza Básica y en Educación Media
Grado a que conduce	Licenciatura en Educación y en Letras Inglesas
Salidas intermedias No	
Jornada en que se dictará	Diurna
Vacantes por Jornada	30
Duración de la Carrera en años	5
Duración de la Carrera en semestres	10

Misión institucional

La misión institucional de la Universidad se inscribe en la labor educacional centenaria de la Compañía de Jesús en Chile. Esta labor siempre ha incluido instituciones de enseñanza y, además, en los últimos 40 años, un sistemático trabajo de investigación y de apoyo a la educación y a los docentes efectuado por el CIDE (Centro de Investigación y Desarrollo de la Educación).

El proyecto de la Universidad busca ser una contribución a la sociedad chilena y es claro y consensual, que hoy el desarrollo económico, político, social y cultural del país, pasa por el mejoramiento de la educación nacional. El interés de la UAH por la educación, tiene como foco y preocupación principal la justicia social y la contribución que educadores bien formados y sensibles a los problemas de los más pobres y marginados pueden hacer al logro de una educación más equitativa.

En el marco anterior, en 2002 se crea la carrera de educación básica, con lo cual se inicia una labor de formación de educadores, lo que viene a completar naturalmente el proyecto educacional de la universidad. En 2004 se agregan dos nuevas carreras: la de pedagogía para profesionales y un magister en gestión y dirección de establecimiento educacionales. Para 2005, en concomitancia con la incorporación orgánica del CIDE a la universidad, se pretende extender en cantidad y calidad el servicio educacional de la Universidad, para aportar en el plano de la investigación educacional, en la formación continua de los educadores en ejercicio y en la formación de nuevos educadores, en tres nuevas áreas: la educación de párvulos, la educación de profesores(as) de inglés y de matemáticas.

La tarea de formación de profesores, el perfeccionamiento docente y la investigación se vinculan y enriquecen mutuamente, ya que la formación de educadores comparte el desafío institucional de comprender y enfrentar educacionalmente los problemas políticos, económicos y culturales emergentes en la sociedad chilena y latinoamericana como consecuencias de cambios cada vez más rápidos y globales.

Con estas nuevas carreras la Universidad busca formar educadores de excelencia, para lo cual se les ofrecerá una formación humanista y abierta a lo religioso, que los sitúe reflexivamente en la complejidad del mundo contemporáneo, los conecte con nuestro pasado y los haga capaces de proyectos de futuro.

La carrera de pedagogía en inglés en enseñanza básica y media responde a una necesidad actual del país y del mundo globalizado. Las demandas que la sociedad actual impone a los egresados de la Enseñanza Media son múltiples y el inglés es una herramienta fundamental en el ejercicio de futuros trabajos o en la participación en el mundo profesional o académico. Estos alumnos requieren de un profesor con una sólida preparación personal y disciplinaria que le permita apoyar a sus educandos en su crecimiento humano y en el aprendizaje de las competencias requeridas. El profesor de inglés graduado de la Universidad Padre será capaz de hacerse cargo de la responsabilidad de educar en los valores fundamentales y en el dominio de la lengua a los jóvenes que nuestro proyecto país necesita.

III. Objetivos de la carrera

Formar un profesor de inglés, que pueda ejercer, tanto en la enseñanza media como en la enseñanza básica, altamente calificado para desempeñarse con eficiencia, conforme a las exigencias de los planes y programas nacionales vigentes.

Formar un profesor de inglés, que sea capaz de integrar la docencia de su asignatura con la formación integral de sus alumnos, apoyando su desarrollo personal, su proyección social y su responsabilidad cívica; propiciando actitudes y valores que fomenten la tolerancia, la equidad, el respeto y la solidaridad.

Formar un profesional comprometido con su desarrollo profesional, conocedor de los enfoques metodológicos-didácticos actuales, y con una práctica reflexiva y en diálogo permanente con sus pares y la comunidad académica que le permita una permanente actualización.

Formar un profesional que esté al tanto y utilice las nuevas tecnologías de comunicación y de información en educación.

Formar un profesional autónomo, creativo y con capacidad crítica, que pueda formar ciudadanos integrales y conscientes de la necesidad de apertura a otras culturas sin perder la propia, en una relación dialógica para comprender la realidad chilena y su inclusión en el mundo global, así como el rol que juegan los países de habla inglesa.

IV. Justificación de la carrera

La Reforma Educacional Chilena puso nuevas exigencias para la enseñanza del inglés en Chile y lo agregó al Plan de Estudios Nacional en 5° y 6° años Básicos (1996), lo cual implica que se requiere un número aproximado de 1.500 profesores con la especialidad de Inglés para Básica.

Más recientemente, las políticas educativas han redoblado el énfasis en la enseñanza del inglés y se ha puesto metas exigentes. Esto significa que para el año 2010 todos los profesores en ejercicio en educación media tendrán que haber rendido y aprobado un equivalente al examen FCE (First Certificate in English) y los alumnos de Octavo Básico tomarán el equivalente al Ket (Key English Test) y los de Cuarto Medio el equivalente al Pet (Preliminary English Test).

El punto de partida es modesto. Las últimas experiencias de evaluación diagnóstica y test piloto realizadas por el proyecto Inglés Abre Puertas del Mineduc indican que tanto los alumnos como los profesores no cumplen con el nivel mínimo de inglés para desempeñarse adecuadamente.

En este marco se hace imperativo desarrollar un currículo de formación de profesores de Inglés que garantice tanto el manejo de la lengua como de la didáctica y las metodologías para enseñarla. El nuevo currículo requiere de un profesional capaz de desarrollar las habilidades de comprensión auditiva y lectora y un inglés oral y escrito básico, herramientas mínimas necesarias para desenvolverse en esta nueva sociedad globalizada.

En lo referente a los profesores de básica es importante mencionar que la carrera no existe en las universidades tradicionales del país y que sólo recientemente las universidades privadas han comenzado programas de profesores de básica con mención en Inglés. Esto significa que hay carencias de profesores idóneos, para ejercer en básica.

En la región metropolitana existen cuatro universidades miembros del Consejo de Rectores que imparten pedagogía en inglés, dos de ellas, la Pontificia Universidad Católica y la Universidad de Chile tienen cuatro años de licenciatura en letras inglesas y Lingüística inglesa respectivamente, y posteriormente un año o un año y medio de pedagogía en inglés. Ninguna de estas pedagogías se encuentran insertas o directamente relacionadas con las licenciaturas. Las otras dos, la Universidad de Santiago y la Metropolitana de Ciencias de la Educación tienen el programa de Pedagogía en Inglés en 5 años. Estas se encuentran en proceso de revisión curricular, ya que no están satisfechas con sus resultados. Por lo tanto, la Universidad tiene abierto el camino para elaborar y proponer un currículo que realmente se ajuste y cumpla con el perfil del profesor de inglés que hoy necesitamos.

V. Cuerpo docente

Los autores de este proyecto han contactado a un conjunto de profesionales con alta preparación y experiencia en formación de profesores de inglés para interiorizarlos en lo medular de la presente propuesta y sondear con ellos su disponibilidad e interés para comprometerlos una vez aprobado el proyecto.

VI. Destinatarios del programa

Jóvenes egresados de enseñanza media con interés prioritario en el área de la enseñanza del inglés.

VII. Requisitos de admisión a la carrera y criterios de selección

Admisión Ordinaria Los postulantes deberán haber rendido la Prueba de Selección Universitaria (PSU). Se privilegiará a aquellos estudiantes que hayan obtenido los puntajes más altos a partir de un mínimo de 550 puntos, ponderados del siguiente modo.

PSU Lenguaje y Comunicación : 30 %

PSU Matemáticas : 25 %

PSU Ciencias (Sociales o Naturales): 15 %

NEM : 30 %

Se bonificará en un 10 % el puntaje ponderado, a los postulantes que acrediten haber egresado de enseñanza media con un promedio de notas que los ubique en el 15% superior de la generación del establecimiento en donde cursaron sus estudios. Los postulantes con puntajes inferiores al mínimo exigido serán evaluados caso a caso.

Se realizará una entrevista personal a todos los postulantes.

Admisión Especial

Para ingresar por esta vía, el postulante deberá encontrarse en alguna de las siguientes situaciones:

Egresados o titulados de una institución de estudios superiores.

Cambio de universidad y/o carrera.

Enseñanza Media en el extranjero.

En todos los casos, los postulantes deberán adjuntar a la solicitud de postulación la documentación que respalde sus antecedentes académicos, además de cumplir con una entrevista personal.

Admisión Complementaria

Se aceptará el ingreso de alumnos que pertenezcan a sectores específicos de la sociedad y que posean capacidad de estudios superiores. Como en los casos anteriores, también se contempla el requisito de una entrevista personal.

VIII. Requisitos de titulación

Para obtener el grado académico de profesor de inglés con especialización en básica o media, se necesita haber aprobado la totalidad de los cursos correspondientes al programa, haber realizado la práctica profesional y el seminario de título.

IX. Expectativas ocupacionales

Ejercer la docencia como profesor de inglés en enseñanza básica y/o educación media .

Realizar estudios de post grado que posibiliten el ejercicio de la docencia en universidades y la realización de trabajos de investigación.

Desempeñarse en esferas de gestión cultural, editoriales, bibliotecas, organización de congresos y seminarios..

Asesoría y participación en la producción de programas de enseñanza de inglés para televisión, y radio.

Elaboración de material de apoyo para la enseñanza de inglés en educación básica y media.

X. Plan de Estudio

El plan de estudios dedica los dos primeros años a tres objetivos.

En primer lugar, se busca la formación general mediante la incorporación de los alumnos(as) a un conjunto de ramos del bachillerato de filosofía y humanidades, con el objeto de aumentar la capacidad de reflexión personal sobre su propia vida y el mundo social, y mediante el acceso a algunos saberes instrumentales como expresión escrita y matemáticas.

El segundo objetivo es mantener durante los dos años un acercamiento a la educación que permita mantener viva la reflexión vocacional y asumir maduramente la decisión de ser profesor(a).

Por último, durante estos dos años el acercamiento al idioma inglés es intensivo y se dedica a su aprendizaje el 50% del tiempo.

Los cursos y actividades de los tres años siguientes tienen como finalidad entregar la formación profesional. Ellos corresponden a cinco grandes áreas, cuatro relacionadas con la especialidad de inglés y una relacionada con el área de profesión pedagógico/humanista en torno a elementos fundamentales del proceso educativo, así como a una adecuada profesión académica, personal y profesional del futuro profesor.

Área de Lengua Inglesa.

Este es un eje troncal en la formación de un profesor de inglés, ya que quien pretenda enseñar un idioma extranjero debe ser primero capaz de hablarlo, entenderlo, comunicarse eficientemente en él y conocer todos sus componentes.

El desarrollo de esta área comienza en los cuatro primeros semestres, donde se ha expuesto a los alumnos a un gran número de horas de inglés, como un semi-programa de inmersión. La idea es usar estos dos años para llevar a los alumnos a un nivel intermedio de inglés. Se propone tomar el examen KET al término del primer semestre, el PET al finalizar el tercer semestre, el FCE al término del quinto y antes de graduarse el CAE, Cambridge Advanced English, certificando el nivel avanzado necesario para enseñar en los liceos chilenos. Los componentes de esta área son: las

cuatro habilidades, Comprensión Lectora y Auditiva, Expresión Oral y Escrita además de Gramática, Vocabulario y Fonética.

Los cursos de Lengua Inglesa 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, y 9 tienen los siguientes componentes:

a) Inglés Oral: los alumnos tienen oportunidad de usar el idioma hablando, conversando, discutiendo y dando sus opiniones sobre distintos temas. Trabajan en parejas o en grupos, con diálogos, role-play y dinámicas de grupo adecuadas para fomentar la producción del idioma.

b) Inglés Escrito: los estudiantes aprenden a redactar desde una oración, pasando por un párrafo, hasta un ensayo. Aprenden a organizar sus ideas lógicamente y a expresarlas claramente. Del mismo modo, aprenden a distinguir los distintos géneros, tales como narración, descripción, etc., y a usarlos con los términos adecuados.

c) Lectura Intensiva: leen textos no muy largos (párrafos, descripciones, cuentos cortos y ensayos de una o dos páginas, etc.) para luego analizarlos en relación al léxico, las estructuras gramaticales y las ideas. Los alumnos son examinados de forma oral y escrita y deben demostrar cabal comprensión.

d) Lectura Extensiva: leen cuentos y novelas en sus casas para disfrutar el idioma y aprender a inferir, relacionar, predecir, analizar y, en general, para aprehender el idioma casi subconscientemente. Estos textos se informan al resto del curso y se discuten, pero no se evalúan exhaustivamente como la Lectura Intensiva. Se espera que no busquen términos en el diccionario, a menos que sea estrictamente necesario y que adivinen significados.

e) Pronunciación: se enseña a los alumnos a distinguir las diferencias entre los sonidos del español y el inglés a través de práctica oral en contexto; preferiblemente usando los textos orales y escritos usados en los módulos ya descritos. Estas no son clases de Fonética, sólo se trata de que ellos tomen consciencia de la importancia que los sonidos tienen en el inglés y de los problemas que ocasiona la confusión de sonidos en el receptor.

Área de Lingüística y componentes lingüísticos específicos.

Los cursos de esta área están relacionados con las teorías del aprendizaje y desarrollo de la lengua materna, en su dimensión social de comunicación e intercambio, y en su dimensión individual de crecimiento personal. Así mismo, cubre las teorías de enseñanza y aprendizaje de otras lenguas o lenguas extranjeras. Las asignaturas elegidas son Lingüística General y Lingüística Aplicada (Sociolingüística y Psicolingüística)

Los componentes lingüísticos específicos elegidos son Léxico-Gramática 1 y 2, Fonética, y Análisis del Discurso, los cuales entregan a los alumnos conocimiento e información de mayor profundidad sobre cómo funciona la lengua inglesa.

Léxico-Gramática 1 y 2

Este componente incluye vocabulario y gramática en un mismo programa para que de este modo los alumnos comprendan la necesidad de trabajar con ambas áreas simultáneamente y contextualizadas. La gramática y el léxico son inter-dependientes, de ahí que se señalarán las diferencias y las semejanzas más significativas entre forma y función y, a partir de ellas, se reforzarán las relaciones léxico-gramaticales, tales como afijación y formación de palabras, y estructuras morfosintácticas que se explican y aprenden a través de expresiones como 'collocations'. De manera práctica se generará en el alumno competencia lingüística relacionada con la morfología de las palabras, las propiedades de frases verbales, nominales, adjetivas, adverbiales y preposicionales usadas en contexto.

Fonética

Este curso entrega una visión práctica de la fonética descriptiva (características fónicas del inglés) y de la fonética normativa (reglas de corrección fonética en la lengua meta). Los alumnos realizarán actividades de entrenamiento auditivo, pronunciación, transcripción y notación para quedar capacitados para diagnosticar errores de pronunciación y realizar técnicas de corrección.

c) Análisis del Discurso

Este curso entrega a los alumnos patrones gramático-textuales que les permitirán desarrollar competencia discursiva para la elaboración de textos orales y escritos coherentes y cohesivos tanto a nivel de párrafo (oraciones), como de textos (ensayos, artículos, etc.).

Área de Literatura y Cultura.

Las asignaturas de esta área aportan la dimensión inter e intracultural y el espacio para la discusión e introducción a la diversidad de costumbres, tradiciones y valores en los países de habla inglesa, abriendo el espectro a la comparación y contraste de movimientos literarios y religiosos, corrientes políticas y artísticas que han causado impacto en nuestra civilización. Así mismo, abren la posibilidad de discusión y diálogo respecto a nuestra propia cultura e identidad, y nuestra relación con el mundo angloparlante.

a) Literatura de los países de habla inglesa 1,2,3 y 4. Lectura, análisis y reflexión de textos escritos por autores ingleses, irlandeses, escoceses. galeses, australianos, neozelandeses, canadienses, sudafricanos, caribeños y norteamericanos; su época, el movimiento literario al cual pertenecieron y las relaciones pertinentes.

b) Cultura y Civilización 1 y 2. Revisión de tradiciones, costumbre, usos, identidad de los países de habla

inglesa; y comparación con los mismos elementos en Chile y Latinoamérica.

Área de Metodología y de iniciación a la experiencia laboral.

Este es el segundo eje troncal ya que las asignaturas de esta área están relacionadas con los métodos enfoques y estrategias para el proceso enseñanza-aprendizaje de un idioma extranjero. Es a partir de esta área donde los alumnos deben conocer los diferentes estilos y estrategias, técnicas y actividades para planificar, enseñar y luego evaluar lo enseñado. El proceso de aprender un idioma extranjero es largo y necesita tener un seguimiento planificado por parte del profesor para poder ayudar a sus alumnos adecuadamente. Por otro lado en esta área los alumnos se familiarizarán con la reforma curricular chilena sus planes y programas, sus textos y otros materiales; tendrá acceso a recursos tecnológicos apropiados y deberán reflexionar acerca de su propia práctica y experiencias; y tomarán conciencia acerca de sus creencias con respecto al proceso de enseñanza/aprendizaje.

Metodología 1,2,3 y 4

Estrategias y actividades para desarrollar la comprensión lectora y auditiva y la expresión oral y escrita; selección, adaptación y creación de materiales; estrategias técnicas y actividades para primaria y secundaria. Criterios para diseñar y evaluar instrumentos de evaluación y dar retroalimentación sobre los resultados de los mismos.

Metodología 1

Este curso permitirá que los alumnos se familiaricen con los principios básicos sobre la adquisición de un idioma extranjero; para que identifiquen sus propias creencias, actitudes y principios relacionados con el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje del inglés y para que conozcan los distintos métodos, enfoques y técnicas desarrolladas a través de la historia.

Metodología 2

En este curso los alumnos aprenderán a planificar e implementar la enseñanza de los componentes lingüísticos (gramática, vocabulario y pronunciación) y el desarrollo de las cuatro habilidades lingüísticas receptivas y productivas: leer, escuchar, hablar y escribir, para lo cual diseñarán, adaptarán y/o seleccionarán estrategias, técnicas, actividades y ejercicios. Así mismo aprenderán a diseñar, adaptar y seleccionar material didáctico y textos de estudio.

Metodología 3

Este curso es la continuación de Metodología 2, planificarán y pondrán en práctica unidades de aprendizaje relacionadas con las cuatro habilidades y los componentes lingüísticos y se familiarizarán con estrategias de manejo de sala de clases (classroom management) relacionadas con dinámicas de grupo, disciplina. Serán grabados en sesiones de micro-enseñanza, las cuales serán posteriormente analizadas en clase.

Metodología 4

Este curso familiarizará a los alumnos con el diseño y aplicación de instrumentos de evaluación, con técnicas de auto-evaluación y evaluación de pares, técnicas de evaluación de proceso y de producto, y técnicas para llevar diarios y portafolios. Del mismo modo, se familiarizarán con técnicas de investigación acción y de observación de clases para relacionarlas con su práctica pedagógica.

b) Experiencias laborales 1,2,3 y 4

En las experiencias laborales I y II los alumnos se integran al trabajo de una clase en calidad de ayudante de un profesor experimentado que, reconociendo que aún no está en condiciones de asumir tareas de enseñanza del idioma, lo irá introduciendo en la práctica del ejercicio asignándole tareas auténticas de la situación de enseñar (preparar un material, corregir ciertos trabajos, etc.) y, ocasionalmente, observando determinadas clases. Estos trabajos le permitirán iniciar una continua reflexión y análisis, tanto con el profesor del colegio como con su profesor en la universidad. La idea es que poco a poco vayan incorporando estrategias, técnicas, actividades y ejercicios, tanto de enseñanza/aprendizaje y manejo de clase (grupo) como de evaluación, repertorio que necesitarán cuando hagan la Práctica Final. Para este fin llevan un diario con un registro de cada clase observada y comentarios adicionales sobre la planificación, la pertinencia de las actividades, las reacciones de los alumnos y su propia reacción, así como sugerencias y/o comentarios. Durante las Experiencias Laborales III y IV los alumnos pasan a ser ayudantes del profesor, pueden colaborar activamente en la preparación y selección de materiales, en planificar algunas actividades, en desarrollar alguna actividad con el profesor en la clase en calidad de team teaching o co-teacher, e incluso puede corregir algún ítem de prueba si el profesor lo considera apropiado.

c) El Currículo Chileno

Este curso busca que el futuro profesor(a) se familiarice con los criterios de la Reforma, conozca los planes y programas vigentes y se ejercite en su uso como fuente y herramienta didáctica para sus propias experiencias laborales y la planificación de su proyecto de la Práctica Final, realizando las actividades y evaluando el proceso y sus resultados.

Área de formación personal y pedagógica.

Las asignaturas de esta área propician una sólida formación ético-moral, pedagógica y disciplinaria. Le permitirán apreciar la dimensión social del conocimiento, de sus formas de construirlo y de su integración en la resolución de problemas en la vida escolar. Del mismo modo, aprenderá a integrar y crear equipos de trabajo interdisciplinarios y multidisciplinarios y tomará decisiones con autonomía y autoridad en diferentes situaciones y contextos.

Las asignaturas de esta área se desarrollan a lo largo de toda la formación, específicamente, en modalidad de talleres y tienen como función incentivar a una permanente reflexión crítica sobre el propio quehacer e ir adquiriendo herramientas de análisis y reflexión crítica sobre la propia práctica, valorizando y incentivando el trabajo cooperativo.

a) Los cursos de Filosofía, Antropología y Desarrollo de la cultura contribuyen a la formación de los futuros docentes desarrollando su capacidad de reflexión personal sobre su propia vida y el mundo social, mediante la identificación de los problemas centrales que han inquietado a hombres y mujeres de todas las épocas, relacionándolos con los que inquietan hoy y tratando de buscar los ejes de solución para dichos problemas.

b) Los talleres de Introducción a la educación, Realidad educacional y Ética buscan sensibilizar a los futuros docentes en los grandes desafíos educativos que enfrenta el país, las políticas con que se enfrentan, al mismo tiempo que los orienta en la profundización del sentido social de la tarea docente.

Talleres de reflexión I, II y III

Con estos cursos se busca desarrollar en los alumnos el hábito de la reflexión crítica sobre la propia práctica. El taller I propone elementos teóricos para centrar la reflexión en la importancia y características de lo que constituye una relación pedagógica. El taller II se centra en factores y condiciones que un educador debe generar para favorecer los aprendizajes de los alumnos. El taller III está orientado a analizar las condiciones para una gestión pedagógica, tanto de la institución como del aula, centrada en los aprendizajes.

El proyecto de Investigación en acción o de diseño busca que el alumno pueda realizar un relato sistemático de lo que ha visto y vivido en sus experiencias escolares y el trabajo académico y bosquejar su proyecto final o de práctica que tendría que realizar y ejecutar en el último semestre de su formación.

Malla Curricular

1 semestre	2 semestre	3 semestre	4 semestre	5 semestre	6 semestre	7 semestre	8 semestre	9 semestre	10 semestre
Filosofía Antigua y Medieval	Introducción a la Psicología	Filosofía Moderna	Filosofía Contemporánea	Lingüística General	Lingüística Aplicada	Metod. 1 Comp. Auditiva y Expresión Oral	Metod. 2 Comp. Lectora y Exp. Escrita	Metod. 3 Primaria/Secundaria	
Expresión Escrita	Historia de la Educación	Matemáticas	Historia social y política de A.Latina	Fonética	Lit. Inglesa 1	Lit. Inglesa .2	Lit. Inglesa 3	Lit. Inglesa. 4	
Lengua Ing. 1 (20)	Lengua Ing. 2 (20)	Lengua Ing. 3 (20)	Lengua Ing. 4 (20)	Lexico-Gramat. 1	Lexico/ Gramatica 2	Analisis del Discurso	La política educacional chilena y el currículo.	Metod. 4 Evaluación y Materiales	
Taller de Introducción a la Educación	Taller de Realidad Educacional Chilena	Taller de Etica y Educación	Taller de Introducción a la práctica educativa	Teoría del Apdzaje y Ciclo Vital I	Teoría del Aprendizaje y Ciclo Vital II	Cult.& Civ. 1	Cult.& Civ. 2		
				Lengua Ing.5 (12)	Lengua Ing. 6 (12)	Lengua Ing. 7 (12)	Lengua Ing. 8 (8)	Lengua Ing. 9 (8)	
				Taller reflex. Práct. Educativa I		Taller Reflex. Práct. Educativa II		Taller Reflex. Práct. Educativa III	Proyecto Final
				Exp. Laboral. 1 Dia escuela	Exp. Laboral. 2 Dia liceo	Exp. Laboral. 3 2 dias escuela	Exp. laboral. 4 2 dias liceo		Practica Final Dos cursos semestrales

Course syllabus sample: Practicum

PROGRAMA DEL CURSO

I. IDENTIFICACIÓN GENERAL DEL CURSO

Curso:	Práctica Final I
Sección:	Única
Unidad Académica:	Pedagogía en Inglés
Período académico:	1er Semestre 2011
Horario:	De acuerdo a la disponibilidad de los alumnos

II. DESCRIPCIÓN DE LA PRÁCTICA

Durante la práctica los estudiantes usarán lo aprendido y desarrollado en los cuatro años de carrera que llevan cursados para gerenciar, articular, diseñar y planificar lecciones sobre las unidades de inglés que correspondan al o a los cursos donde esté haciendo la práctica. Si el estudiante trabaja con Básica el primer semestre, el segundo deberá hacerlo con Media y vice-versa, ya que el título es de "Profesor de Inglés de Básica y Media". El tema central de la práctica final es demostrar dominio del idioma inglés y saber enseñarlo en el aula. Por lo tanto, el alumno demostrará condiciones para la gestión pedagógica y para que el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje sea efectivo. Del mismo modo, se busca que los estudiantes reflexionen críticamente para construir conocimientos y orientaciones que iluminen su propia práctica y adquieran instrumentos para su mejoramiento.

III. OBJETIVO GENERAL:

Diseñar e implementar planes de clase de acuerdo al contenido establecido para el curso específico donde realizarán la práctica, demostrando un manejo apropiado del inglés, uso apropiado de estrategias, classroom management, capacidad de auto-crítica y de reflexión crítica de las prácticas de aprendizaje del desempeño profesional docente en los establecimientos educacionales.

Objetivos específicos de la práctica:

Analizar y reflexionar críticamente sobre su práctica de aula, pertinencia, consecuencias y repercusiones en el aprendizaje de los estudiantes.

Articular y poner en práctica las nociones de gestión de aula y de metodología de la enseñanza del inglés en cuanto a pasos de una lección, estrategias, actividades, ejercicios, classroom management and group dynamics.

Crear y/o adaptar materiales didácticos para su uso en el aula.

Generar instrumentos de evaluación del aprendizaje para medir el logro de los estudiantes.

IV. CONTENIDOS:

Lesson planning and teaching

Classroom Management

Assessment and Evaluation

Selection and adjustment of textbooks and class materials

Use of ICT

V. METODOLOGÍA:

Los estudiantes serán asignados a un establecimiento educacional donde se harán cargo de uno o dos cursos de Inglés, ya sea en Básica o en Media. Harán tantas horas de clase como esos cursos tengan. El supervisor se reunirá con él/ella una vez a la semana para revisar la planificación y los materiales, conversará con el estudiante para que él de una visión crítica del desarrollo de sus clases, se harán las observaciones pertinentes y se dará el visto bueno. Así mismo, revisará también críticamente la bitácora con la reflexión de sus clases. El profesor guía del colegio estará presente en el aula mientras el estudiante esté haciendo la clase que le corresponde, para luego recibir retroalimentación sobre la misma. El supervisor visitará el colegio para observar al practicante al menos tres veces durante el semestre, al principio, al medio y al final.

VI. EVALUACIÓN:

Bitácora de observación y reflexión 30%

Planes de clase y Step by Step 25%

Informe de Observación de clases 35%

Evaluación profesor guía 10%

VII. BIBLIOGRAFÍA

- OBLIGATORIA:

Williams, M & Burden, R.L. Psychology for Language Teachers. A social Constructivist Approach. Cambridge University Press. 2002

Slavin, R.E. Educational Psychology. Theory and Practice. Boston . Allyn & Bacon. 2003

Jack Richards and Willy Renandya. Methodology in Language Teaching. CUP 2002

COMPLEMENTARIA:

Programas del Mineduc de 5° Básico a IV Medio.

Marco para la Buena Enseñanza

Mapas de Progreso

Classroom observation chart

This chart was used by teacher educators when observing pre-service teachers at the practicum.

Trainee's Name: _____ Date _____

Tutor's Name: _____

Mentor's Name: _____

School: _____

Class: _____

Are the general objectives clear? _____

What is the focus of the pre-activity?

_____

_____

Are these introductory activities clear? Interesting? Motivating?_____

Do the activities flow naturally?_____

Do they invite participation from learners?_____

Are these activities relevant for the central objective?_____

What is the focus of the comprehension activity?

_____

_____

Is it adequate for the level intended? _____

Are instructions clear? _____

Is comprehension checked adequately? _____

Is it adequately linked to the previous, and to the following stages? _____

What is the focus of the post activity?

_____

_____

Is the practice and application of the central teaching points relevant? _____

_____

Are the activities managed properly? (Pair work? Group work? Individual work?)_____

_____

Is participation encouraged by the activities and by the teaching style? _____

_____

GENERAL ASSESSMENT

Class preparation_____

Materials _____

Teacher's communicative ability (voice, body language, etc.) _____

Use of English: _____

Learner participation _____

Pace, rhythm, and variety_____

Appropriate Use of ICT_____

Teaching/Learning Closure _____

GENERAL COMMENTS

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____